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TOWARD A CONCEPT OF THE NORMAL PERSONALITY¹

EDWARD JOSEPH SHOBEN, JR.

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CLINICAL practice and the behavioral sciences alike have typically focused on the pathological in their studies of personality and behavior dynamics. While much of crucial importance remains to be learned, there is an abundant empirical knowledge and an impressive body of theory concerning the deviant and the diseased, the anxious and the neurotic, the disturbed and the maladjusted. In contrast, there is little information and even less conceptual clarity about the nature of psychological normality. Indeed, there are even those (5, 13) who argue that there is no such thing as a normal man; there are only those who manage their interpersonal relationships in such a way that others are strongly motivated to avoid them, even by committing them to a mental hospital or a prison, as opposed to those who do not incite such degrees of social ostracism.

This argument has two characteristics. First, it disposes of the issue by simply distributing people along a dimension of pathology. All men are a little queer, but some are much more so than others. Second, it has affinities with the two major ideas that have been brought to bear on the question of what constitutes normal or abnormal behavior: the statistical conception of the usual or the average and the notion of cultural relativism. If pathology is conceived as the extent to which one is tolerated by one's fellows, then any individual can theoretically be described in terms of some index number that reflects the degree of acceptability accorded him. The resulting distribution would effectively amount to an ordering of people from the least to the most pathological. Similarly, if the positions on such a continuum are thought of as functions

of one's acceptance or avoidance by others, then they can only be defined by reference to some group. The implications here are twofold. First, the conception of pathology is necessarily relativistic, varying from group to group or culture to culture. Second, the degree of pathology is defined as the obverse of the degree of conformity to group norms. The more one's behavior conforms to the standards of the group, the less one is likely to be subject to social avoidance; whereas the more one's behavior deviates from the rules, the greater is the probability of ostracism to the point of institutional commitment.

STATISTICAL AND RELATIVISTIC CONCEPTS OF NORMALITY

Yet it is doubtful that the issues are fully clarified by these statistical and culturally relativistic ideas. Is it most fruitful to regard normality or integrative behavior as merely reflecting a minimal degree of pathology, or may there be a certain merit in considering the asset side of personality, the positive aspects of human development? This question becomes particularly relevant when one is concerned with the socialization process or with the goals and outcomes of psychotherapy or various rehabilitative efforts.

It seems most improbable that the family, the church, and the school, the main agents of socialization, exist for the minimizing of inevitable pathological traits in the developing members of the community. Rather, parents, priests, and educators are likely to insist that their function is that of facilitating some sort of positive growth, the progressive acquisition of those characteristics, including skills, knowledge, and attitudes, which permit more productive, contributory, and satisfying ways of life. Similarly, while psychotherapists may sometimes accept the limited goals of simply trying to inhibit pathological processes, there are certainly those (11, 16) who take the position that therapy

¹ This paper is revised from versions read on March 26, 1956, at the convention of the American Personnel and Guidance Association in Washington, D. C., and on November 16, 1956, at a conference on mental health research at Catholic University in Washington, D. C., under the joint sponsorship of Catholic University, the University of Maryland, and the U. S. Veterans Administration.

is to be judged more in terms of how much it contributes to a patient's ability to achieve adult gratifications rather than its sheer efficiency in reducing symptoms or shoring up pathological defenses.

A general concern for such a point of view seems to be emerging in the field of public mental health (26). Beginning with an emphasis on treatment, the concept of community mental health swung to a preventive phase with the main interest focused on identifying the antecedents of mental disease and on reducing morbidity rates by attacking their determinants. The vogue of eugenics was one illustrative feature of this stage. More recently, there has been a considerable dissatisfaction with the whole notion of interpreting psychological states in terms of disease analogues (15, 23). Maladjustive behavior patterns, the neuroses, and—perhaps to a lesser extent—the psychoses may possibly be better understood as disordered, ineffective, and defensive styles of life than as forms of sickness. In consequence, there seems to be a growing tendency to conceive of the public mental health enterprise as emphasizing positive development with the prevention and treatment of pathology regarded as vital but secondary.

But in what does positive development consist? The statistical concept of the average is not very helpful. Tiegs and Katz (27), for example, reported a study of college students who had been rated for fourteen different evidences of "nervousness." By and large, these traits were normally distributed, suggesting that those subjects rated low must be considered just as "abnormal" (unusual) as those rated high. This conception seems to provide a superficial quantitative model only at the expense of hopeless self-contradiction and violence to the ordinary categories of communication. Even in a case that at first blush seems to cause no difficulty, the problem remains. Criminal behavior, for example, is distributed in a J-shaped fashion with most cases concentrated at the point of zero offenses, ranging to a relatively few instances of many-time offenders. Few would argue that the usual behavior here is not also the most "positive." But one suspects that the sheer frequency of law-abiding behavior has little to do with its acknowledged integrative character. If conformity to social rules is generally considered more desirable than criminality, it is not because of its rate of occurrence but because of its consequences for both society and the individual.

Thus, a statistical emphasis on the usual as the criterion of positive adjustment or normality shades into a socially relativistic concept with an implied criterion of conformity. The terms "usual" or "most frequent" or "average" are meaningless without reference to some group, and this state of affairs poses two problems. First, conformity in itself, as history abundantly demonstrates, is a dubious guide to conduct. Innovation is as necessary to a culture's survival as are tradition and conservation, and conformity has frequently meant acquiescence in conditions undermining the maturity and positive development of human beings rather than their enhancement. On more personal levels, conformity sometimes seems related in some degree to personality processes that can quite properly be called pathological (2, 24). Second, relativistic conceptions of normality pose serious questions as to the reference group against which any individual is to be assessed. Benedict (3), for example, has made it quite clear that behavior which is considered abnormal in one culture is quite acceptable in others, that certain forms of abnormalities which occur in some societies are absent in others, and that conduct which is thought completely normal in one group may be regarded as intensely pathological in another. Such observations, while descriptively sound, can lead readily to two troublesome inferences. One is that the storm trooper must be considered as the prototype of integrative adjustment in Nazi culture, the members of the Politburo as best representing human normality Soviet-style, and the crudest adolescent in a delinquent gang as its most positively developed member. The other is that any evaluative judgment of cultures and societies must be regarded as inappropriate. Since normality is conceived only in terms of conformity to group standards, the group itself must be beyond appraisal. Thus, the suspicion and mistrust of Dobu (10), the sense of resigned futility that permeates Alor (6), and the regimentation that characterizes totalitarian nations can logically only be taken as norms in terms of which individual behavior may be interpreted, not as indications of abnormal tendencies in the cultures themselves.

Wegrocki (28), in criticizing such relativistic notions, argues that it is not the form of behavior, the actual acts themselves, that defines its normal or pathological character. Rather, it is its function. What he calls the "quintessence of abnor-

mality" lies in reactions which represent an escape from conflicts and problems rather than a facing of them. This formulation, implying that integrative adjustments are those which most directly confront conflicts and problems, seems essentially free of the difficulties inherent in statistical conceptions and the idea of cultural relativism. But it presents troubles of its own. For instance, what does it mean to "face" a problem or conflict? On what ground, other than the most arbitrarily moralistic one, can such confrontations be defended as more positive than escape? Finally, does this facing of one's problems have any relationship to the matter of conformity in the sense of helping to clarify decisions regarding the acceptance or rejection of group standards?

To deal with such questions requires coming to grips with certain problems of value. It is at this point that the behavioral sciences and ethics meet and merge, and it seems unlikely that any conception of normality can be developed apart from some general considerations that are fundamentally moral. Once the purely relativistic ideas of normality are swept away, it becomes difficult to avoid some concern for the issues of happiness and right conduct (*i.e.*, conduct leading to the greatest degree of human satisfaction) that are the traditional province of the literary interpreter of human experience, the theologian, and the moral philosopher. A primary challenge here is that of providing a rational and naturalistic basis for a concept of integrative adjustment that is at once consistent with the stance and contributions of empirical science and in harmony with whatever wisdom mankind has accumulated through its history.

SYMBOLIC AND SOCIAL ASPECTS OF HUMAN NATURE

One way to meet this challenge is by frankly postulating a basic principle of value. The fundamental contention advanced here is that behavior is "positive" or "integrative" to the extent that it reflects the unique attributes of the human animal. There are undoubtedly other ways of approaching a fruitful concept of normality. Nevertheless, this assertion is consistent with the implications of organic evolution, escapes the fallacy of the survival-of-the-fittest doctrine in its various forms, and permits a derivation of more specific criteria of positive adjustment from the distinctive characteristics of man. No discontinuity within the phylogenetic scale need be assumed. It seems clear, however,

that man, while certainly an animal, can hardly be described as "nothing but" an animal; and his normality or integration seems much more likely to consist in the fulfillment of his unique potentialities than in the development of those he shares with infrahuman organisms.

Foremost among these uniquely human potentialities, as Cassirer (4) and Langer (14) make clear, is the enormous capacity for symbolization. What is most characteristic of men is their pervasive employment of *propositional* language. While other organisms, especially dogs (22) and the higher apes (29), react to symbols, their faculty for doing so indicates only an ability to respond to mediate or representative as well as direct stimuli. Man, on the other hand, uses symbols designatively, as a vehicle for recollecting past events, for dealing with things which are not physically present, and for projecting experience into the future. Goldstein (12) makes the same point in his discussion of the "attitude toward the merely possible," the ability to deal with things that are only imagined or which are not part of an immediate, concrete situation. In patients whose speech has been impaired because of brain damage, this attitude toward the possible is disrupted. Thus, aphasics are typically unable to say such things as, "The snow is black" or "The moon shines in the daytime"; similarly, they are incapable of *pretending* to comb their hair or to take a drink of water, although they can actually *perform* these acts. Such patients appear to have lost the uniquely human capacity for thinking *about* things as well as directly "thinking things."

It is his symbolic ability, then, that makes man the only creature who can "look before and after and pine for what is not." Propositional speech makes it possible for him to learn from not only his own personal experience but from that of other men in other times and places, to forecast the consequences of his own behavior, and to have ideals. These three symbol-given attributes—the aptitude for capitalizing on experience, including the experience of others, over time, the capacity for foresight and the self-imposed control of behavior through the anticipation of its outcomes, and the ability to envision worlds closer than the present one to the heart's desire—constitute a basic set of distinctively human potentialities.

A second set of such potentialities seems related to the long period of helpless dependence that char-

acterizes infancy and childhood. Made mandatory by the relative biological incompleteness of the human baby, this phase of development is likely to be lengthened as cultures become more complex. Thus, in such simpler societies as the Samoan (18), children can achieve a higher degree of independence at an earlier age than in the civilizations of the West, for example, where the necessity for learning complicated and specialized economic skills extends the period of dependence through adolescence and even into chronological young adulthood. The central point, however, is that unlike the young of any other species, human children in *all* cultural settings must spend a long time during which the gratification of their most basic needs is mediated by somebody else and is dependent on their relationship to somebody else.

This state of affairs exposes youngsters during their earliest and most formative stages of development to two fundamental conditions of human life. The first is that one's survival, contentment, and need fulfillment involve an inevitable element of reliance on other people. The second is that the relative autonomy, authority, and power that characterize the parent figures and others on whom one relies in childhood are always perceived to a greater or lesser extent in association with responsibility and a kind of altruism. That is, the enjoyment of adult privileges and status tends to occur in conjunction with the acceptance, in some degree, of responsibility for mediating, in some way, the need gratifications of others. Mowrer and Kluckhohn (20) seem to be speaking of a similar pattern when they describe the socialization process as progressing from childhood *dependency* through *independence* to adult *dependability*.

Moreover, this reciprocal relationship between reliance and responsibility seems to obtain on adult levels as well as between children and parents, with the degree of reciprocity a partial function of the complexity of the culture. In simpler societies, a relatively small number of persons may assume primary responsibility for virtually all of the needs of the group in excess of its bare subsistence demands. Under civilized conditions, however, the specialization made necessary by technology and the pattern of urban living means that each adult is dependent on some other adult in some way and that, conversely, he is responsible in some fashion for the welfare of some other adult. The difference between the simpler and the more complex cultures,

however, is only one of degree. The crucial point is that, throughout human society, men are in one way or another dependent on each other both in the familiar situation of parents and children and in the course of adult living. This pattern of interdependency gives to human life a social character to be found nowhere else in the animal kingdom. Even among the remarkable social insects, the patterns of symbiosis found there seem to be a result of a genetically determined division of labor rather than the fulfillment of a potentiality for the mutual sharing of responsibilities for each other.

It is in this notion of the fulfillment of distinctively human potentialities that a fruitful conception of positive adjustment may have its roots. From the symbolic and peculiarly social character of human life, it may be possible to derive a set of potential attributes the cultivation of which results in something different from the mere absence of pathology and which forms a standard against which to assess the degree of integration in individual persons. To accept this task is to attempt the construction of a normative or ideal model of a normal, positively developed, or integratively adjusted human being.

A MODEL OF INTEGRATIVE ADJUSTMENT

In the first place, it would seem that, as the symbolic capacity that endows man with foresight develops in an individual, there is a concomitant increase in his ability to control his own behavior by anticipating its probable long-range consequences. The normal person is, first of all, one who has learned that in many situations his greatest satisfaction is gained by foregoing the immediate opportunities for comfort and pleasure in the interest of more remote rewards. He lives according to what Paul Elmer More, the Anglican theologian, calls "the law of costingness":

... the simple and tyrannical fact that, whether in the world physical, or in the world intellectual, or in the world spiritual, we can get nothing without paying an exacted price. The fool is he who ignores, and the villain is he who thinks he can outwit, the vigilance of the nemesis guarding this law of costingness... all [one's] progress is dependent on surrendering one interest or value for a higher interest or value (19, p. 158).

Mowrer and Ullman (21) have made the same point in arguing, from the results of an ingenious experiment, that normality results in large part

from the acquired ability to subject impulses to control through the symbolic cues one presents to oneself in the course of estimating the consequences of one's own behavior. Through symbolization, the future outcomes of one's actions are drawn into the psychological present; the strength of more remote rewards or punishments is consequently increased; and a long-range inhibitory or facilitating effect on incipient conduct is thereby exercised.

This increase in self-control means a lessened need for control by external authority, and conformity consequently becomes a relatively unimportant issue. The integratively adjusted person either conforms to the standards of his group because their acceptance leads to the most rewarding long-range consequences for him, or he rebels against authority, whether of persons or of law or custom, on *considered* grounds. This considered form of revolt implies two things. The first is an honest conviction that rules or the ruler are somehow unjust and that the implementation of his own values is likely to lead to a more broadly satisfying state of affairs. Such an attack on authority is very different from revolts that occur out of sheer needs for self-assertion or desires for power or as expressions of displaced hostility. The main dimension of difference is that of honesty as opposed to deception. The normal person is relatively well aware of his motives in either conforming or rebelling. The pathological rebel, on the other hand, tends to deceive himself and others about his goals. His reasons for nonconformity amount to rationalizations, and his justifications are typically projections. This kind of self-defeating and socially disruptive deceptiveness is seen daily in clinical practice.

The second characteristic of nonconformity in the normal person is that it is undertaken with an essential acceptance of the possible consequences. Having considered the risks beforehand, he is inclined neither to whine nor to ask that his rebellious conduct be overlooked if he runs afoul of trouble. In keeping with the "law of costliness," he is willing to pay the price for behaving in accordance with his own idiosyncratic values. "We have the right to lead our own lives," John Erskine (8) makes Helen of Troy say to her daughter Hermione, "but that right implies another—to suffer the consequences. . . . Do your best, and if it's a mistake, hide nothing and be glad to suffer for it. That's morality." A psychological paraphrase of this bit of belletristic wisdom is not inappropriate:

The assumption of responsibility² for one's actions is one of the attributes of personal integration.

But if personal responsibility and self-control through foresight can be derived as aspects of integrative adjustment from man's symbolic capacity, a third characteristic of interpersonal responsibility can be deduced from his social nature. If interdependency is an essential part of human social life, then the normal person becomes one who can act dependably in relation to others and at the same time acknowledge his need for others. The roots of the former probably lie, as McClelland (17) has pointed out, in the role perceptions which developing children form of parent figures and other agents of the socialization process. By conceiving of such people as at least in some degree the nurturant guides of others and through identification with them, the integratively adjusted individual "wants to be" himself trustworthy and altruistic in the sense of being dependable and acting out of a genuine concern for the welfare of others as he can best conceive it. Altruism in this context, therefore, means nothing sentimental. It certainly includes the making and enforcement of disciplinary rules and the imposition of behavioral limits, but only if these steps are motivated by an interest in helping others and express concern and affection rather than mere personal annoyance or the power conferred by a superior status.

Similarly, the acknowledgment of one's needs for others implies a learned capacity for forming and maintaining intimate interpersonal relationships. Erikson (7) refers to this aspect of the normal personality as the attitude of "basic trust," and it is not far from what can be meaningfully styled in plain language as the ability to love. One suspects that the origins of this ability lies in the long experience during childhood of having need gratifications frequently associated with the presence of another person, typically a parent figure. By this

² This conception of responsibility is by no means anti-deterministic. As Fingarette (8) points out, one can *understand* his own or another's behavior, in the sense of accounting for it or rationally explaining it, by the retrospective process of examining the past. Responsibility, on the other hand, is neither retrospective in orientation nor explanatory in function. It is future oriented and refers to the *act* of proclaiming oneself as answerable for one's own conduct and its consequences. Thus, "responsibility," in this context, is not a logical term, implying causation, but a behavioral and attitudinal one, descriptive of a class of human actions.

association and the process of generalization, one comes to attach a positive affect to others. But as the youngster develops, he gradually learns that the need-mediating behavior of others is maintained only by his reciprocating, by his entering into a relationship of mutuality with others. If this kind of mutuality is not required of him, he is likely to perpetuate his dependency beyond the period his biological level of development and the complexity of his culture define as appropriate; whereas if he is required to demonstrate this mutuality too soon, he is likely to form the schema that interpersonal relationships are essentially matters of traded favors, and that, instead of basic trust, the proper attitude is one of getting as much as possible while giving no more than necessary. The pursuit in research and thought of such hypotheses as these might shed a good deal of light on the determinants of friendship, marital happiness, and effective parenthood, the relational expressions of effective personal integration.

But there is still another interpersonal attitude relevant to a positive conception of adjustment that is somewhat different from that bound up with relationships of an intimate and personal kind. There is a sense in which each individual, even if he regards himself as unfortunate and unhappy, owes his essential humanity to the group which enabled him to survive his helpless infancy. As studies of feral children (25) have shown, even the humanly distinctive and enormously adaptive trait of propositional speech does not become usable without the stimulation and nurture of other people. A kind of obligation is therefore created for the person to be an asset rather than a burden to society. It is partly to the discharging of this obligation that Adler (1) referred in developing his concept of social interest as a mark of normality. While the notion certainly implies the learning of local loyalties and personal affections, it also transcends the provincial limits of group and era. Because man's symbolic capacity enables him to benefit from the record of human history and to anticipate the future, and because his pattern of social interdependency, especially in civilized societies, reaches across the boundaries of political units and parochial affiliations, it seems reasonable to expect the positively developed person to behave in such a fashion as to contribute, according to his own particular lights, to the general welfare of humanity, to take

as his frame of reference mankind at large as best he understands it rather than his own group or clan.

Ideologies are at issue here, but there need be neither embarrassment nor a lack of room for debate regarding the specifics of policy and values in the hypothesis that democratic attitudes are closely bound up with personality integration. After all, democracy in psychological terms implies only a concern about others, a valuing of persons above things, and a willingness to participate in mutually gratifying relationships with many categories of persons, including those of which one has only vicarious knowledge. Departures from democratic attitudes in this psychological sense mean a restriction on the potentiality for friendship and imply both a fear of others and a valuation of such things as power over people, thus endangering the interpersonal rewards that come from acting on the attitude of basic trust. Democratic social interest, then, means simply the most direct route to the fulfillment of a distinctively human capacity derived from man's symbolic character and the inevitability of his social life.

Finally, man's ability to assume an attitude toward the "merely possible" suggests that the normal person has ideals and standards that he tries to live up to even though they often exceed his grasp. For an integrative adjustment does not consist in the attainment of perfection but in a striving to act in accordance with the best principles of conduct that one can conceive. Operationally, this notion implies that there is an optimum discrepancy between one's self concept and one's ego ideal. Those for whom this discrepancy is too large (in favor, of course, of the ideal) are likely to condemn themselves to the frustration of never approximating their goals and to an almost perpetually low self-esteem. Those whose discrepancies are too low, on the other hand, are probably less than integratively adjusted either because they are failing to fulfill their human capacity to envision themselves as they could be or because they are self-deceptively overestimating themselves.

This model of integrative adjustment as characterized by self-control, personal responsibility, social responsibility, democratic social interest, and ideals must be regarded only in the most tentative fashion. Nevertheless, it does seem to take into account some realistic considerations. It avoids the

impossible conception of the normal person as one who is always happy, free from conflict, and without problems. Rather, it suggests that he may often fall short of his ideals; and because of ignorance, the limitations under which an individual lives in a complex world, or the strength of immediate pressures, he may sometimes behave in ways that prove to be shortsighted or self-defeating. Consequently, he knows something of the experience of guilt at times, and because he tries to be fully aware of the risks he takes, he can hardly be entirely free from fear and worry. On the other hand, a person who is congruent to the model is likely to be one who enjoys a relatively consistent and high degree of self-respect and who elicits a predominantly positive and warm reaction from others. Moreover, it is such a person who seems to learn wisdom rather than hostile bitterness or pathologically frightened withdrawal from whatever disappointments or suffering may be his lot. Guilt, for example, becomes a challenge to his honesty, especially with himself but also with others; and it signalizes for him the desirability of modifying his behavior, of greater effort to live up to his ideals, rather than the need to defend himself by such mechanisms as rationalization or projection. Finally, the model permits a wide variation in the actual behaviors in which normal people may engage and even makes allowance for a wide range of disagreements among them. Integrative adjustment does not consist in the individual's fitting a pre-conceived behavioral mold. It may well consist in the degree to which his efforts fulfill the symbolic and social potentialities that are distinctively human.

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GENERAL ARRANGEMENTS: SIXTY-FIFTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

New York City, New York, August 30-September 5, 1957

JOSEPH E. BARMACK, *APA Convention Manager*

OUR annual conventions involve two types of effort: (a) program planning and (b) convention administration. The APA and the divisional program committees develop the programs, and the convention arrangements committees provide the facilities for implementing them. Information important for program planning has already appeared in "The Call for Papers and Symposia" of the February 1957 *American Psychologist*. This announcement is concerned with some aspects of convention administration of interest to the membership.

Time and Place of Meetings: Friday, August 30, through Thursday, September 5, 1957, in New York City, New York. Meetings will be held in the Statler and the New Yorker hotels. The Statler is at 7th Avenue and 33rd Street, and the New Yorker is at 8th Avenue and 34th Street. Both hotels are in the vicinity of Pennsylvania Station. Manhattan Center will be used for meetings on APA day, Monday, September 2, only. Manhattan Center is on 34th Street, right next to the New Yorker.

Proposed Block-Time Schedule: Your attention is invited to Table 1 which gives the tentative block-time program. Members may plan their attendance with the expectation that the final program will bear close resemblance to this schedule. Minor revisions may be necessary.

Hotel Reservations: A hotel reservation application blank is printed on page 247. You will note that the hotels have provided a distribution of the number of rooms available at each price level. The probability of obtaining a room of your choice at the Statler is enhanced by two factors: (a) advance reservation and (b) whether or not your reservation is for the early part of the convention period. The New Yorker will reserve the less expensive rooms on a first come, first served basis.

Graduate students and younger members operating on a limited budget will be interested in the dormitory-style rooms available in both hotels.

Please reserve your room well in advance of the meeting. No matter when you make your reservation, it is very helpful to the association that you identify yourself as a member or guest of the APA Convention. The number of reservations affects the facilities that hotels can justifiably make available to this convention and future ones.

Send your reservation to: APA Housing; New York Convention and Visitors Bureau; 90 East 42nd Street; New York 17, New York.

There are eleven convention arrangements committees. APA members interested in matters handled by these committees are urged to communicate with the appropriate chairmen directly. They are interested in your suggestions. On matters not covered by these committees, members should write to Joseph E. Barmack; APA Convention Manager; The City College of New York; 138th Street and Convent Avenue; New York 31, New York.

Convention Registration: Members are urged to register in advance as well as make their hotel reservations in advance. Advance registration will minimize delay upon arrival at meetings. Those who register in advance will, upon arrival, merely indicate where they are staying and receive an envelope containing their badge, condensed program, and other materials. A registration form is on page 247 of this issue. Registration will occur from 3:00 to 8:00 P.M. on Thursday, August 29, in the Mezzanine of the Statler and will proceed on subsequent days from 9:00 A.M. to 5:00 P.M. Registration activities will be under the supervision of Carl H. Rush Jr.; Standard Oil Co. (New Jersey); 30 Rockefeller Plaza; New York 20, New York.

Your advance registration should be sent to APA Housing; New York Convention and Visitors Bureau; 90 East 42nd Street; New York 17, New York.

Publication of Convention Program: This year the complete convention program, with abstracts, will be printed in the August *American Psychologist*.

TABLE 1
Convention Schedule

Aug. 30 Fri.		Aug. 31 Sat.		Sept. 1 Sun.		Sept. 2 ^a Mon.		Sept. 3 Tues.		Sept. 4 Wed.		Sept. 5 Thurs.									
A.M.	P.M.	A.M.	P.M.	A.M.	P.M.	A.M.	P.M.	A.M.	P.M.	A.M.	P.M.	A.M.	P.M.								
Clinical ^b								Clinical		General											
Personality & Social								Experimental													
				SPSSI				Pers. & Social		Military											
School		Maturity & Old Age				Meas. ^c		SPSSI													
Developmental		Public Service		Counseling				Measurement ^c													
Consulting				Educational				Esthetics													
								Teaching													
								Industrial & Business													
ICWP ^d		PSI CHI		CSPA ^e		ICWP ^d				Engineering											
								PSI CHI		CSPA ^e											

• The afternoon and evening of Labor Day (Monday, September 2) are reserved for APA DAY activities.

^b Including Society for Projective Techniques.

^c Including Psychometric Society.

⁴ International Council of Women Psychologists.

• Conference of State Psychological Associations.

The condensed program will be distributed to those who have registered when they check in at the registration desk. Members who do not register will be charged one dollar for the condensed program.

Directory of Convention Registrants: A directory of members and guests registered at the convention will be maintained on the Mezzanine floor of the Statler. A mail box and bulletin board will be located nearby. Members will assist both themselves and their friends by registering as early as possible.

Robert J. Williams; Columbia University; New York 27, New York, will be in charge of these services.

Information Desk: An information desk will be maintained at the Statler between the hours of 9:00 A.M. and 5:00 P.M. Personnel at this desk will provide such convention information as room locations and the time and place of scheduled events. In addition, they will make available information about desirable restaurants, local points of interest, recreational facilities, and where to get tickets to television shows. These services will be supervised by Irving Stuart; Hunter College; Bronx 58, New York.

Few cities in the world offer as rich a variety of entertainment and cultural facilities. To attend plays of your choice, you are advised to write for reservations now. Even this foresight may not be successful for some plays.

Special Events: Requests for luncheons and dinners for APA boards, divisions, committees, and other groups which are to be announced in the Program must be in the hands of the Chairman of the APA Program Committee (E. I. Burdock; New York Psychiatric Institute; New York 32, New York) not later than May 1, 1957. Requests made after May 1 should be addressed to the Chairman of the Special Events Committee (Miriam Faries; The City College of New York; New York 31, New York). Events scheduled after May 1 will not be printed in the program. The request should include a statement of estimated attendance, time required, time and day preferred, and whether arrangements for meal service or cocktails are desired.

Divisions and other organizations desiring meal accommodations will contact the Banquet Manager of the hotel in which the function will be scheduled for menus and prices. They will also have the tickets printed and make them available to the Special Events Chairman, Miriam Faries, for sale at a Special Events desk at the registration table. The sale of tickets will continue until one hour before the function is scheduled to begin. The remaining tickets and the funds collected will be turned over to the organization's representative so that last-minute sales may be adequately controlled.

Individual organizations will be responsible for guarantees to the hotels. Because of the high added costs, members are advised to avoid scheduling meal functions on Sunday, September 1, or Labor Day, September 2.

Psychologist's Wives: Miriam Faries would like to schedule some special events for psychologists' wives while their husbands are professionally engaged at the convention. Among the ideas which have been suggested are a day devoted to the United Nations activities and another day behind the scenes of a large department store, perhaps combined with a fashion show. Before implementing these ideas, she would like to know if there is sufficient interest in them. Please acquaint your wife with these possibilities, and if she is interested in participating, ask her to write to Miriam Faries.

APA Day Functions: Monday, September 2, has been designated as APA day. Division program committees will not schedule any program for the afternoon and evening of that day. Arrangements are being made for a program of APA-wide

interest for that time. The social part of the program will be under the supervision of John R. Martin; 99 Park Avenue; New York 46, New York.

Exhibits: The Mezzanine of the Statler will be the exhibit area. For information concerning facilities, arrangements costs, etc., write to the Chairman of the Committee on Exhibits (Raymond A. Katzell; Richardson, Bellows, Henry and Co., Inc.; 1 West 57th Street; New York 19, New York). He would appreciate the names of potential exhibitors. Because of the heavy costs incurred in displaying films, it has been decided to charge a nominal handling fee to all commercial exhibitors whose films have been accepted. Audio-visual materials should be submitted to Elliott M. McGinnies; Chairman of the Audio-Visual Presentations Committee; University of Maryland; College Park, Maryland.

Public Information: A press room will be maintained at the Statler. Public information activities will be coordinated by Gerhart D. Wiebe, Chairman of the Public Information Committee and by Michael Amrine, APA Public Relations Consultant.

Placement: A Placement Office will be maintained in the Statler under the direction of Roderick H. Bare of the APA Central Office. The Placement Office will be open every day, except Monday, September 2, throughout the convention.

Audio-Visual Services: Robert A. Harris; Brooklyn College; Brooklyn 10, New York, is Chairman of the Audio-Visual Services Committee. He will make available audio-visual equipment where needed. Such equipment includes public address systems, slide projectors, name plates for symposium participants, etc. As a new procedure this year, authors of accepted papers will receive a checklist on which to indicate their audio-visual requirements.

Student Help: The administration of a convention of the size of ours requires a very considerable amount of help. To meet this need we have, in the past, appealed to students to contribute their services. They have responded to this appeal, and we look forward again to their support. Evelyn Raskin (Brooklyn College; Brooklyn 10, New York) and Alice Gustav (New York University; New York 3, New York) are Co-chairmen of the

Committee on the Coordination of Voluntary Student Help.

Signs and Posters: Alexander A. Schneiders (Fordham University; New York 58, New York) is Chairman of the Signs and Posters Committee. His committee will work closely with the one on Audio-Visual Services in developing nameplates for symposium participants. His committee will also prepare the signs helpful in locating the many activities going on at the convention.

Convention Treasurer: Martin M. Bruce (Dunlap and Associates; 429 Atlantic Street; Stamford, Connecticut) has the exacting job of Convention Treasurer. He urges divisional officers to monitor their financial commitments with the hotels very closely to avoid confusion with those assumed by the APA Central Office and the convention arrangements committees.

Parking: The Statler is served by a parking facility which charges \$3.00 per day. The New Yorker is served by a facility which charges \$2.50 per day. For those who would like a cheaper and somewhat less convenient parking accomodation,

the Lincoln Tunnel Parking Lot in North Bergen, New Jersey is recommended. It has its own bus service to and from the Port of New York Authority Bus Terminal. The terminal is within walking distance of the hotels. Your car can be left there for the seven days of the convention for five dollars. The lot is located near the intersection of U. S. Highway 1 and New Jersey State Highway 3. While your car can be left there through Sunday and Labor Day, there is no service on these two days.

Preconvention Sessions: The APA Program Committee will not assume responsibility for the scheduling of sessions to be held prior to August 30, but it will list them in the Convention Program provided the necessary information reaches its Chairman, E. I. Burdock, by May 1, 1957. The request should include preferred time of meetings, topics, room assignments, and names of participants.

Convention Lounge: A Convention Lounge will be open to members and guests every day from 4:00 p.m. in the Georgian Room of the Statler. Members are urged to plan to make this their headquarters for informal get-togethers.

PROPOSED CHANGES IN THE RULES FOR MEMBERSHIP IN THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION:

A REPORT OF THE POLICY AND PLANNING BOARD

FEW problems have received more attention from the Policy and Planning Board over the years than have the standards for membership in the American Psychological Association. Once more, acting in part under instructions given it by the Council of Representatives in 1954, the Policy and Planning Board is proposing changes in the membership structure of the association and recommends that you vote for their adoption. The details of the changes are given as an appendix; the following explanation and summary is offered for the clarification of the issues involved.

HISTORY

From an organization that once counted among its members only persons with a PhD degree plus significant published research, the APA moved in successive changes just before and just after the war to an organization with a greatly expanded base. By the time of the reorganization in 1946, we were admitting as dues-paying, voting members people with as little as one year of training in psychology plus a year of experience in a psychological setting. From this point the pendulum started to swing back. For one thing, there was growing emphasis on a high level of training in the clinical field. Less than two years later the Policy and Planning Board recommended that the association should narrow its limits of membership. It proposed in substance what the Policy and Planning Board is advocating today, namely, three classes of membership: a distinguished class of people to be honored for their outstanding achievement; a broad, professional class, consisting of all persons with full training; and a third class, consisting of students and other persons who may be strongly identified with psychology but who have less experience and training than the professional man. This proposal was too radical at that early date, and action on it was postponed without submitting it to the membership for a vote.

Ten years have elapsed while successive boards have worked over the problem. On two occasions reasonably complete proposals were submitted to the Council of Representatives. With one minor

exception, the matter has each time been continued on the agenda of the Policy and Planning Board for further study.

Finally, at its meeting in New York in September 1954, the council gave considerable time to the consideration of membership changes and formulated a series of specific recommendations. With relatively minor exceptions the present plan carries out the substance of those recommendations by the Council of Representatives. These changes were reported back to the council in substantially their present form at the meeting in Chicago in 1956 and were endorsed by the council with minor alterations.

WHAT ARE THE ISSUES?

1. The most persistent consideration motivating a change in our membership structure has been the feeling that membership in the APA defines a person in the eyes of the public as a psychologist, and that the PhD level is the one secure place to anchor this definition. For eleven years we have been making steady progress in improving the standards of selection and training of people who are employed as psychologists. We have succeeded in establishing a level of training in terms of the PhD which has received general acceptance. In contrast, subdoctoral training has not become crystallized in any widely accepted pattern. It seems reasonable for the association to accept the results of the broad program of its own making by requiring the PhD degree as the basic requirement for voting membership in the association.

2. The administration of membership rules at a level below the PhD degree has proven to be arduous and in many cases most unrewarding. It involves the Membership Committee in an assessment of course titles and course credits. The great diversity of acceptable programs of graduate training leads to inequities when any set of rules is used. Thus, the Membership Committee is trying to make the all-important decision of admission to professional status on the basis of evidence that other institutions would consider inadequate. Our present standards are unrealistic in the face of these difficulties.

3. Considerable concern has been felt about the steady depreciation in the meaning of the rank of Fellow. Under the present rules there is a strong inclination to insist that the business of the association be conducted by the Fellows. As a consequence, almost every psychologist looks forward to his election to fellowship status after the required lapse of five years following the PhD. Any distinction that may once have attached to this class is tending to be lost. It is argued that the work of the association should be carried on by the large number of voting members, people professionally qualified, and the status of Fellow should be awarded only in recognition of a truly outstanding achievement to a much smaller number of members of the association.

4. It is important that as many persons as possible should feel some interest in and identification with the affairs of the APA. Both students preparing to enter the profession and those persons employed in psychological activities with less than full training, fall in this class. Any plan to set higher standards for membership must not operate to exclude the broad class of subdoctoral people. The solution lies in providing a proper role for both groups of people in the association without losing the important gains from their differentiation.

5. Since a very large number of Associates do not choose to affiliate themselves with any of the divisions, their only role in APA affairs, apart from such individual participation as receiving journals and attending annual meetings, is voting for the President-elect. A number of these people play a considerable role in the state psychological associations. Others are graduate students whose ultimate pattern of interest has not yet crystallized. In terms of their training and type of employment, it seems reasonable to provide for future members of this group with a membership class below that of Member.

6. The title of Life Member has presented some persistent gerontological problems that have received discussion elsewhere. The simplest solution would seem to be the elimination of a separate class of membership while retaining certain prerequisites, such as a reduction in dues, for older members.

THE NEW PLAN

The proposal now made is that we create three principal classes of membership: Fellows, Members,

and Associates. The basic class of membership in the APA that would be eligible to vote and hold office in the association without restriction would be the class called "Member," which includes Fellows. The key requirement for election as a Member would be that the person should have the doctor's degree based upon a dissertation in psychology.

The proposal changes somewhat the language describing the qualifications for fellowship. But since the interpretation of this language depends in the final analysis upon action by the divisions, it can only be hoped that this title may come to reflect the high honor that the association intends. The divisions should be aware that this is the intent of the proposed changes in wording.

The new class of Associates would in the future include people qualified in substantially the same way as recently elected Associates. The important exception would be that any Associate who subsequently received the PhD degree would automatically become a Member. The Associates would not vote for officers of the association or be eligible to hold certain specified offices in the association. They would not be counted in the quota for Divisional Representatives on the Council of Representatives. They might, of course, participate fully in the activities of the state psychological associations and in the activities of the divisions so far as the respective associations or divisions granted them those privileges.

In implementing these changes all current Associates of the APA would become Members if the proposed by-laws are approved. This would mean that for some years to come the class of Associates would consist very largely of new graduate students who join the association year by year. Actually, it would be quite some time before there would be any important impact of these changes on the actual pattern of government of the APA's affairs.

ARGUMENT AND COUNTER ARGUMENT

It is evidently impossible to anticipate here all of the objections that various members may have to this proposal. On the other hand, it may be well to indicate some of the issues that have been raised, in addition to those discussed above, and to say at least briefly why the Policy and Planning Board has chosen to take the position it did with respect to these issues.

1. *Would it not be possible to choose less ambiguous names for various classes of membership?* We

have tried valiantly for two years, but have found no better terms. Other schemes usually end up with some more complicated handle for one of the classes (such as *Associate Member*), and it is a reasonable prediction of human behavior that in the end only a single word will be used. We feel confident that people will soon accommodate themselves to the terms proposed. They represent the consensus that has emerged from a good deal of discussion of the somewhat difficult semantic problems.

2. *Is psychology being as responsible as it should for many people who will employ psychological knowledge in broad areas such as social work, education, and industry?* This problem is always two-edged. Coupled with the need for the recognition of the role of the subprofessional psychologist is the equally great need for the recognition of proper training and competence. The best solution to this problem would seem to lie in providing, on the one hand, greater differentiation in the classes of membership (although the Policy and Planning Board complicates the structure of the APA with great reluctance) and, on the other hand, the increasing use of membership in affiliated groups as a means of giving status to sincere and effective, but marginally trained, individuals.

3. *Is there not something unjust about the creation of a group of second-class citizens?* This issue gets itself mixed up with political attitudes and some of our most cherished stereotypes. Much of this is not germane to the present argument. The best answer that can be given is to say that all efforts on the part of the association to restrict its membership run afoul of the same fundamental objection. Wherever the line is drawn, there will always be individuals excluded who may have quite as much claim on the privileges of the association as some of those who are included. A nonmember who subscribes to our journals, or who attends our annual meeting, is being denied some privileges while enjoying others. The question is not one of right and wrong, but simply where are we to draw the lines. Another answer is that the disability is not arbitrary and irrelevant; the person may remove his disability through his own efforts. The Policy and Planning Board feels that the recommended course is the conservative one; if future events should make it seem unwise, it can be changed. The reverse is not true.

4. *Since this matter is so complex, should it not be discussed more fully by the association?* We

think not. As stated above, the matter has been before us in one form or another for ten years. Anyone wishing other views of the matter should consult past files of the *American Psychologist*. The Annual Reports of the Policy and Planning Board as published in the *American Psychologist* give a full history of the problems. These are to be found in the June 1947, June 1948, October 1949, June 1950, October 1951, and November 1954 issues. Attention should also be called to the recommendations of the Council of Representatives contained in the November 1954 *American Psychologist*. No subject like this is ever exhausted. The time has come for the membership to decide. The Policy and Planning Board recommends the adoption of the present proposals with the conviction that they reflect fairly the many opinions brought to its attention.

Policy and Planning Board

CHARLES W. BRAY
LAUNOR F. CARTER
HAROLD M. HILDRETH
DONALD B. LINDSAY
EDWIN B. NEWMAN, Chairman
VICTOR C. RAIMY
CARL R. ROGERS
FILLMORE H. SANFORD
DELOS D. WICKENS

TEXT OF THE CHANGES IN THE BY-LAWS

The Policy and Planning Board proposes to submit to the membership, for vote by mail ballot, the following amendments to the By-Laws for the American Psychological Association.¹

ARTICLE II of the By-Laws shall be amended to read as follows:

1. The Association shall consist of three classes of members: *Fellows*, *Members*, and *Associates* [and *Life Members*].

2. Fellows [of the Association] shall be [persons] *Members of the Association* who are primarily engaged in the advancement of psychology as a science and as a profession, and who [have met stand-

¹ In the following material the complete text of each section is given, except where an ellipsis is indicated. The material in square brackets is to be deleted from the present by-laws. The material in italics is added by the proposed amendment. The material that is neither in brackets nor italicized is retained unchanged.

ards of proficiency as], *in addition to meeting the requirements for Membership in the Association, have been judged by the procedures described below to have made an outstanding contribution to psychology as a science and a profession.* Fellows shall be entitled to [all] the rights and privileges of the Association without restriction.

3. The minimum standards for Fellowship shall be (1) a doctoral degree based in part upon a psychological dissertation conferred by a graduate school of recognized standing, [except when waived in special cases by the Council of Representatives on presentation of evidence of outstanding achievement in psychological research or theory,]² (2) prior membership as [an Associate] *a Member for at least one year, [and]* (3) five years of acceptable professional experience subsequent to the granting of the doctoral degree, (4) *evidence of unusual and outstanding contribution or performance in the field of psychology, and* (5) *nomination by one of the Divisions of which he is a Member.* The Council of Representatives shall have the power to designate further standards to be met in the election of Fellows. Divisions may require higher standards than those set by the Council of Representatives for the Association as a whole. [Nominations for Fellows shall include: (1) evidence that the minimum Association standards have been met; and (2) recommendation by one of the Divisions of the Association.]³

4. *Members of the Association shall be persons who are interested or primarily engaged in the advancement of psychology as a science and as a profession, and who have met standards of proficiency as described below. Such Members shall be entitled to the rights and privileges of the Association without restriction. The designation Member as used in these By-Laws is deemed to include Fellows except where there is an express provision otherwise.*

5. *The minimum standard for election to Member status shall be the receipt of the doctoral degree based in part upon a psychological dissertation and conferred by a graduate school of recognized standing. Application for Membership shall also include evidence that the applicant is engaged in study or professional work that is primarily psychological in nature.*

6. [4] Associates shall be persons who are interested in the advancement of psychology as a science

and as a profession, and who are either in training or *employed in the field of psychology.* [in practice in psychology or a field of closely allied interest.] Associates *may not vote or hold office in the Association, but* shall be entitled to all [the] rights and privileges of the Association[, except those] *not* specifically denied them in these By-Laws.

7. [5. Associates shall be (1) persons with the doctoral degree based in part upon a psychological dissertation and conferred by a graduate school of recognized standing; or (2) persons who have completed] *The minimum standard for election as an Associate shall be (1) completion of at least two years of graduate work in psychology in a recognized graduate school; [or one year of graduate study] or (2) the master's degree in psychology from a recognized graduate school plus a year of acceptable experience in professional work that is psychological in nature; and [who] they shall, at the time of [application] election [are] be devoting full time to professional or graduate work that is primarily psychological in nature.* [These requirements may be waived in special cases by the Council of Representatives for persons who have proven themselves competent in a related field and who have published reputable work in psychology, or for persons of distinction in fields other than psychology.]⁴

8. *Associates who receive the doctor's degree, as described in Section 5 above, will, upon application, automatically be advanced to Member on the January first next following the date of the receipt of the application.*

9. [6. Life Members shall be persons who, having reached the age of sixty-five years and having been Associates or Fellows of the Association for at least twenty years, request such status. Although Life Members shall be exempt from paying dues, they shall retain all other rights and privileges of the Association except that of receiving journals covered by membership subscriptions. They may subscribe for such journals, if they so desire, at the rate paid by the Association for active members. (In counting the years of membership in the Association, years in the American Psychological Association and in the American Association of Applied Psychology shall be counted.)]⁵

9. [8.⁶] Fellows [and Associates] shall be elected

² See new Section 10.

³ See new Section 9.

⁵ See new Section 15.

⁶ See 12 below for old Section 7.

by the Council of Representatives upon [nomination] *recommendation* by the Board of Directors. [Foreign Affiliates are recognized by the Executive Secretary without election upon securing the necessary endorsement and the payment of fees.] *Nomination of a Fellow shall be made by a Division of which he is a member and such nomination shall include evidence that the minimum standards of the Association have been met. The names of such nominees for Fellow status shall be published in the American Psychologist in advance of action by the Board of Directors. Members and Associates shall be elected by the Board of Directors upon recommendation of the Membership Committee of the Association.*

10. *The requirement of a doctoral degree based in part upon a psychological dissertation may be waived: (1) for Fellow status by the Council of Representatives upon submission of evidence satisfactory to the Council of outstanding contribution or performance in the field of psychology; or (2) for Member status by the Board of Directors upon submission of evidence satisfactory to the Board of significant contribution or performance in the field of psychology.*

11. *The requirements for election as a Member or Associate may be waived by the Board of Directors, in special cases, for persons of distinction in fields other than psychology.*

12. [7] In addition to the regular membership classes, there shall be a class of Foreign Affiliates, who are not members of the [American Psychological] Association, and who shall not represent themselves as such unless and until they have been elected to membership. [.....] *They [Foreign Affiliates] shall have such rights and privileges as may be granted by the Council of Representatives, including special rates for journal subscriptions.*

13. Foreign Affiliates shall be psychologists who reside in countries other than the United States or [the Dominion of] Canada, who are not members of the American Psychological Association, but who desire affiliation. A Foreign Affiliate shall be a member of the psychological association of the country in which he resides, or, if no such association exists, shall present evidence of appropriate qualifications. *Foreign psychologists who meet the standards for membership may apply in the usual manner if they so desire.*

14. [ARTICLE XIV. Student Journal Group] There shall be a Student Journal Group consisting

of graduate or undergraduate students in psychology. They shall be elected in accordance with *.....* *prescribed by, and shall have such privileges as may be granted by the Council of Representatives, including special rates for the Association's publications. They are not members of the Association, and shall not represent themselves as such unless and until they have been elected to membership.*

15. [8.] Foreign Affiliates and participants in the Student Journal Group are recognized by the Executive Secretary without election upon securing the necessary endorsements and the payment of fees.

16. [9] Divisions may establish such classes of membership within the Division as they see fit, except that the designation Fellow, or Member, or Associate shall be reserved for members of the division who are also members of the Association and elected respectively as Fellows, Members, or Associates, according to the provisions of Sections 3, [or Section] 5, and 7 of this Article.

17. [11.] Procedure for application for membership, [and] affiliation, [in the Association and] or participation in the Student Journal Group, and for transfer from [Associate] Member to Fellow, shall be prescribed by the Council of Representatives.

18. [10.] A member may be dropped from membership for conduct which in anywise tends to injure the Association or to affect adversely its reputation or which is contrary to or destructive of its object. Charges of injurious conduct shall not be entertained against a member unless the precise nature of the charges be submitted to the Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics and Conduct which shall have the power to determine whether the charges shall be dropped, whether the accused shall be given an opportunity to resign, or whether the charge shall be referred to the Board of Directors for review and possible recommendation to the Council of Representatives for action. Conviction of a member for a felony involving moral turpitude automatically brings this case, without necessity of formal complaints, before the Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics and Conduct; and he may be dropped from membership by the Council of Representatives without the necessity of a hearing. In other cases, whenever charges are referred to the Council of Representatives, no person shall be dropped from the membership except after opportunity to be heard in person, if practicable, or

represented by counsel, and then only by a three-fourths vote of the Representatives present at the Council meeting which considers the matter. *A person who has been dropped from membership for conduct as described in this section may reapply for membership only after five years have elapsed from the date of his expulsion. His reapplication shall be considered first by the Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics and Conduct, which shall determine whether or not there now exists sufficient evidence of ethical scientific and professional conduct to warrant further processing of the application in the usual manner. Except as limited by the above, any person who has resigned from the Association may reapply at any time, but all such reapplications shall be referred to the Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics and Conduct to determine whether or not there is relevant information in the Committee files.*

19. Any member who wishes to resign his membership in the Association shall communicate this fact to the Central Office. Resignations may be accepted only by the Board of Directors.

ARTICLES IV, VI, XI, and XIX shall be amended in the following particulars:

ARTICLE IV. 3. Total representation shall be determined annually by the following graduated formula:

Members of the
Divisions who are
Members [Associates or
Fellows] of the Association

4.

5. A Division shall be set up whenever one hundred or more Members [Associates and Fellows] of the Association petition for it and the Council of Representatives approves.

6. A Division may be dissolved by the Council of Representatives (1) when the number of Members [Associates and Fellows] within the Division falls below one hundred, or (2) when the Division votes to recommend dissolution.

ARTICLE VI. 4. It shall [nominate] recommend the election of new Fellows, [and] shall elect new Members and Associates, and shall make recommendations concerning the ad-

ministration of the Association to the Council of Representatives.

ARTICLE XI. 2. The Membership Committee shall consist of three [Fellows] Members of the Association, who may or may not be members of the Council of Representatives, elected for terms of three years, and who, sitting with the Executive Secretary who has no vote, shall review applications for [associateship and fellowship] Fellow, Member, or Associate and report its recommendations on each case to the Board of Directors.

5. It shall be the duty of this committee to receive and investigate complaints of unethical conduct of Fellows, Members, Associates, and Affiliates; to endeavor to settle cases privately; to report annually to the Council of Representatives on types of cases investigated with specific description of difficult or recalcitrant cases; to recommend dropping from membership, as provided in Article II, Section [10] 18; and to formulate from time to time rules or principles of ethics for adoption by the Association.

ARTICLE XIX. 1. The basic Association dues to be paid annually by [Fellows,] Members and Associates shall be determined by the Council of Representatives and shall include subscriptions to the American Psychologist and to such other publications as may be determined by the Council of Representatives. In addition to the basic dues each member shall pay a fixed amount, to be determined by the Council of Representatives, for each Division over and above one to which the member belongs.

7. Any Member who has reached the age of sixty-five years and has been a Member of the Association for at least twenty-five years shall be exempt from further payment of dues upon informing the Central Office of his or her eligibility. Although such Members shall be exempt from paying dues they shall retain other rights and privileges of the Association, except that they shall receive the journals only upon payment to the Association of the subscription price regularly charged a Member either separately or as a part of his dues. (For purposes of this Section, membership in the American Association of Applied Psychology prior to its amalgamation with the American Psychological Association shall be counted.)

THE DIVISION OF EXPERIMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY AND THE APA

Report of a Survey

AT its annual business meeting in September 1955, the Division of Experimental Psychology decided to study the attitudes of its members towards APA. Behind this action lay a history of discontent that reached back to the reorganization of the association in 1945. Expressions of dissatisfaction had been varied, but they had stressed most strongly the increasing preoccupation of APA with the "professional" problems of a growing majority of its members. The latter were alleged to have little interest in "scientific" psychology, which consequently had been reduced to distinctly subordinate status in the association. More recently, sentiment towards secession from APA had appeared to be growing among many members of Division 3; others did not wish to secede but did favor the formation of a separate *scientific* society.

These developments seemed sufficiently significant by the time of the San Francisco meeting to justify informal discussions between the officers of Division 3 and members of the Policy and Planning Board of APA. Subsequently, the problem was brought up for formal consideration at the business meeting of Division 3. The result was a resolution that instructed the president of the division, Frank A. Geldard, to appoint a committee to conduct a systematic study of the division's views on these matters and to report its findings at the next annual business meeting. This article presents the results of that study.

PROCEDURE

The committee first sent a letter to all members of Division 3 concerning the action taken at San Francisco. Suggestions and comments were invited for use in the construction of a questionnaire. Fifty-seven members replied, with a rich variety of opinions and proposals.

Many of the letters stressed the need for clarification of the issues underlying the division's action at San Francisco. Some respondents professed ignorance of "what all the shouting was about" and wanted to know the main arguments pro and con before replying to a questionnaire. It turned out that this request was to have something of a boomerang effect upon the members. For after considering ways of presenting the conflicting points of view as a preamble, the committee decided to incorporate them into the

questionnaire proper. These arguments made up Part I, consisting of 10 "pro" and 10 "anti" APA items presented in alternation under the heading, "Attitudes towards the Organization, Role, and Activities of APA." Most of these items were "multidimensional" in nature, a fact noted with some vehemence by several respondents. The committee was aware of this characteristic, but decided that somewhat complex statements would serve better the "informational" function of this part of the questionnaire. (Even psychologists don't argue by emitting Guttman-type propositions on which judges can take unequivocal stands!)

Part II consisted of 11 items under the heading, "Attitudes towards Proposed Organizational Changes Affecting APA and Division 3." These items ranged from such proposals as "Retain Division 3 unchanged" to "Dissolve Division 3 and organize an independent association." Also included were suggestions for greater autonomy for Division 3 alone, and for the reorganization of APA into a federation of psychological societies.

The respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with each of the 31 items in terms of a seven-point scale (+3 to -3). At the end of the questionnaire, four bits of biographical information were requested: (a) membership status in APA; (b) date of receiving highest degree; (c) date of election to APA; (d) whether employed in a university or nonuniversity position.

Some 380 replies were received in time for use in the IBM analysis. They represented about 60% of the division's total of 626 members. Failures to respond and "erroneous" responses combined were fortunately less than 2% of the sample for any item; the mean percentage of such responses for all items was only .7. So despite the complexity of the items in Part I, virtually all of the respondents found it possible to make the judgments.

ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE ROLE AND ACTIVITIES OF APA

The general trend of the results for the 20 items in Part I can be seen in Table 1.¹ In order to simplify the picture, the item responses on the seven-point scale of agreement-disagreement have been converted into mean percentages of "Pro-APA," "Neutral," and "Anti-APA" responses. Thus the first row in Table 1 shows that, of the 380 respondents, 55.1% were Pro-APA, 14.3% were Neutral,

¹ Omitted from Table 1 and subsequent tabulations are the small percentages of "no responses" and "erroneous responses" (e.g., checking two or more scale positions for a single item). For this reason, the percentages shown for each distribution will total slightly less than 100.

TABLE 1
MEAN PERCENTAGES OF ATTITUDINAL RESPONSES
TO THE 20 ITEMS IN PART I

Group	N	Pro-APA	Neutral	Anti-APA
Total	380	55.1	14.3	30.0
Fellows	195	56.3	13.5	29.3
Associates	175	53.5	15.2	30.9
University	281	55.7	13.5	30.1
Nonuniver.	92	53.8	16.5	29.7

and 30.0% were Anti-APA in attitude—for the 20 items in Part I. Omitting the neutral responses, this means that the expressed attitudes favored APA in almost a two-to-one ratio.

The last four rows in Table 1 show similar percentage distributions for four subgroups in the sample. APA Fellows expressed somewhat more favorable attitudes towards the association than did Associates. To about the same degree, members in universities were more positive in attitude towards APA than those in nonuniversity jobs. But these differences are all small and consist mainly in slightly higher percentages of Neutral responses on the part of Associates and nonuniversity respondents. In the light of these results, further comparisons of these subgroups will be omitted in the remainder of this report.

More interesting and perhaps more significant than the mean percentages in Table 1 are the results for individual items in the questionnaire. Lack of space prohibits the reproduction of all the items and the corresponding percentages. But one or more examples will be given for each of the six categories into which the 20 items can be classified. The percentages will be those for the total sample.

Scientific vs. professional emphasis in APA. The four items in this category show clear pluralities in favor of APA, although substantial percentages of respondents indicate concern about the alleged over-emphasis upon professional problems. Two examples are presented—Items 3 and 4—partly to show the complexity of the “arguments” already mentioned. Beneath each item are given the percentages of Pro-APA, Neutral, and Anti-APA responses.

3. The rapid growth and present large size of APA, heavily concentrated in professional areas, have placed undue prestige and support behind professional practices and techniques that have little scientific foundation. A separate organization for experimental psychologists would tend

to free the latter somewhat from the onus of association with such practices. The “professional” (service) fields of psychology should bear full responsibility for their own scientific standards and practices.

Pro-APA	Neutral	Anti-APA
47.9	7.4	44.3

4. Experimental psychologists cannot escape the alleged onus of association with “professional” psychology simply by withdrawing from APA. They would still be identified as “psychologists.” A more constructive course would be to try to assist in the improvement of the scientific foundation of *all* kinds of psychology. As a solid, mature science, experimental psychology should stay in APA and shoulder its share of the general social obligations which accompany application in any branch of psychology.

Pro-APA	Neutral	Anti-APA
74.8	7.4	17.8

Combining the results for all four items in this group gives the following mean percentages: Pro-APA, 63.4; Neutral, 5.9; Anti-APA, 30.6.

Impact of professional training upon graduate education in psychology. Two of the four items in this group relate directly to issues suggested by the heading. The other two concern the APA’s Education and Training Board and the accreditation of graduate departments in clinical psychology. The mean percentages for all four are as follows: Pro-APA, 47.6; Neutral, 17.9; Anti-APA, 33.8. There are, however, substantial differences among the items, as shown in Item 5 where a plurality appears to express anti-APA sentiments:

5. The growing preoccupation of departments of psychology with professional service problems is mainly a direct result of the emphasis placed upon these problems by APA. Scientific psychologists in university departments are gradually being submerged by “service-oriented” psychologists. Vigorous steps should be taken to resist, and if possible to reverse, this trend.

Pro-APA	Neutral	Anti-APA
38.7	13.9	46.6

The item in this set yielding the most favorable balance towards APA asserts, in general, that such agencies as the Education and Training Board have improved training in all fields of psychology (Pro-APA, 53.7%; Neutral, 19.2%; Anti-APA, 26.1%).

What APA members get for their dues. This category also has four items. One of them refers to the use of Division 3’s dues to support a centralized bureaucracy and committee structure devoted mainly to professional interests. The other three relate in various ways to the value of APA journals. Overall attitudes are reflected in the

mean percentages for the four items as follows: Pro-APA, 59.4; Neutral, 12.8; Anti-APA, 27.0. An example is Item 10 which yielded rather heavily pro-APA responses:

10. The members of Division 3 gain far more in subsidy of scientific publications on the part of members of the "professional" divisions than Division 3 contributes to APA's "professional" activities. Division 3 probably could not alone publish the *Journal of Experimental Psychology* and the *Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology*. These and other valuable scientific journals of APA could be published only by pooling the support of psychologists in all fields.

Pro-APA	Neutral	Anti-APA
60.5	22.9	14.7

The APA convention. Since all of these four items are brief, two of them will be given as examples (Items 13 and 14):

13. The APA convention does not provide a satisfactory setting for the program of a *scientific* society.

Pro-APA	Neutral	Anti-APA
47.4	11.1	41.3

14. The general APA convention is valuable to members of Division 3, as an occasion for associating with members in other fields of psychology.

Pro-APA	Neutral	Anti-APA
72.9	11.3	15.5

The mean percentages for the four items in this category are: Pro-APA, 63.1; Neutral, 12.4; Anti-APA, 24.0. Clearly, these figures do not indicate very strong sentiment in Division 3 for a separate meeting. But as will be noted below, responses to Items 22 and 30 in Part II suggest that this conclusion is subject to considerable qualification.

APA Central Office and committees. Only about 21% of the respondents disagreed with this statement (Item 18): "The Central Office and general administrative structure of APA are satisfactory on the whole." Some 66.5% endorsed the item, while 19.7% were neutral.

The other item in this group reads: "There are too many APA committees devoting too much time and money to professional problems." This one elicited a fairly strong anti-APA reaction (51.6%, with 29.5% favoring the committees, and 18.2% neutral).

Voting rights of associate members. This heading covers the issues in the last two items of Part I. Both yielded high percentages of neutral responses (23.4 and 30.0), possibly indicating considerable doubt as to the implications of the statements. The

first item noted that changes in the character of the membership of APA meant that voting control was passing increasingly into the hands of Associates in the professional divisions; it then recommended that the voting of Associates be limited to divisional matters. The pro and anti percentages were almost identical for this one (38.2 and 38.0). The second item was phrased to favor the status quo and noted that, if the voting rights of Associates were to be changed, their dues would probably have to be reduced. Some 30.0% were neutral towards this argument, 41.4% agreed with it, and 26.8% disagreed.

ATTITUDES TOWARDS PROPOSED ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGES

The 11 items in this section are somewhat incommensurable for purposes of classification. Fortunately all of them are short and will be reproduced verbatim. Beneath each item are shown the percentages of responses falling into the following categories: "Agree," "Neutral," "Disagree." These terms are used because the nonneutral responses to the items in this section are not necessarily pro- or anti-APA in nature.

21.² Retain Division 3 unchanged and have it continue to serve as the primary scientific society for experimental psychology (i.e., maintain the status quo as to organizational structure and function).

Agree	Neutral	Disagree
59.0	10.3	30.2

22. Give Division 3 some such name as "American Association of Experimental Psychologists—A Division of APA" (perhaps holding separate meetings and in general exercising greater autonomy than Division 3 does now).

Agree	Neutral	Disagree
47.9	11.6	40.0

23. Retain Division 3, but also organize an independent association for experimental psychologists that would be affiliated with APA (e.g., Psychometric Society).

Agree	Neutral	Disagree
28.9	16.1	54.0

24. Retain Division 3, but have experimental psychologists cultivate Section I, AAAS, as their primary "scientific" society.

Agree	Neutral	Disagree
13.9	17.4	68.5

² In the questionnaire, the 11 items in Part II were numbered from 1 to 11. In this article, however, these items are numbered 21 to 31 inclusive, to avoid confusion with the numbers for items in Part I.

25. Retain Division 3, but also organize an independent association for experimental psychologists.

Agree	Neutral	Disagree
22.3	15.5	60.8

26. Retain Division 3 and other "scientific" Divisions, but also organize a new association for scientific psychologists in all fields.

Agree	Neutral	Disagree
23.4	12.1	64.2

27. Dissolve Division 3, and organize an independent association for experimental psychologists.

Agree	Neutral	Disagree
15.0	3.7	81.0

28. Dissolve all of the *scientific* Divisions of APA, and organize an independent association for scientific psychologists in all fields.

Agree	Neutral	Disagree
16.6	6.6	76.5

29. Dissolve Division 3, and encourage experimental psychologists to join other societies according to their respective interests (physical, biological, psychological, or social science societies).

Agree	Neutral	Disagree
3.7	4.5	91.6

30. Work for the reorganization of APA into a federation of psychological societies analogous to the Federation of Societies of Experimental Biology.

Agree	Neutral	Disagree
43.4	23.7	32.4

31. Propose that the "applied" divisions withdraw from APA and form one or more professional societies (essentially a return of APA to pre-1945 status).

Agree	Neutral	Disagree
21.7	11.6	65.7

It is interesting to note that item 21 ("maintain the status quo as to organizational structure and function") shows almost exactly a two-to-one ratio between the numbers of Agree and Disagree responses. It will be recalled that the averages for all 20 items in Part I gave approximately this same ratio of pro- to anti-APA responses. This coincidence might seem to argue that we have here a reliable overall index of the division's attitude towards APA. But examination of the results for the other 10 items in Part II shows that this would be an oversimplified interpretation. Two of the 10 items show pluralities in favor of somewhat similar types of organizational changes; the other eight

proposals are disapproved, most of them by heavy majorities.

Organizational changes clearly disapproved. Items 23-29 and 31 all propose, in one way or another, the formation of a separate scientific society outside the APA. The percentages of disagreement range from 54.0 (Item 23) to 91.6 (Item 29); the mean of the eight values is 70.3. Clearly, the sentiment against any form of "separatism" is strong and unequivocal. It is expressed whether or not Division 3 would be retained along with the proposed independent society. To the proposition that Division 3 be dissolved and an independent society for experimental psychologists established, 81.0% disagree, 15.0% agree and 3.7% are neutral.

Organizational changes favored. Items 22 and 30 are proposals for greater autonomy of Division 3 *within the APA structure*. The first would change the name and suggests that separate meetings might be held. The second proposes a reorganization of APA into a federation of psychological societies analogous to the Federation of Societies of Experimental Biology. The patterns of responses to these two items were quite similar. Both were favored by pluralities (47.9 and 43.4), but also drew high percentages of negative responses (40.0 and 32.4).

The results for these two items might well point the way towards significant changes in Division 3's organization and functions. The trend disclosed might signify stronger underlying sentiment for constructive changes than the specific figures suggest. The committee's survey could not avoid a polarization of attitudes into a "pro- vs. anti-APA" framework. This would tend, we think, to inhibit the expression of support for desirable changes that might be planned under the auspices of APA. With the issue of withdrawing from APA and forming a separate society removed, more discriminating consideration of a program of development for Division 3 as a scientific society should now be possible. More generally, the APA's Policy and Planning Board might also consider what fruitful directions of development should be encouraged in all of the scientific divisions of the association.

COMMITTEE OF DIVISION 3 ON RELATIONS WITH APA

I. E. FARBER
C. H. GRAHAM
L. H. LANIER, Chairman
E. B. NEWMAN
L. J. POSTMAN

OPINIONS ABOUT INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY BY DIFFERENT GROUPS OF PSYCHOLOGISTS

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IT is no secret that developments in industrial psychology have met with something less than universal approval among psychologists. Criticisms have come from practitioners within the industrial field as well as from outsiders. Although parallel statements would probably be equally warranted in regard to other branches of applied psychology, our interest here is confined solely to industrial psychology.

How commonly do psychologists feel satisfied or dissatisfied about professional activities pertaining to industry? What types of criticisms are expressed, and how serious are they? In what ways do the views of industrial psychologists differ from those of their colleagues working in more basic parts of the discipline? The inquiry reported here represents an attempt to secure evidence on these questions.

PROCEDURE

In order to obtain opinions, a set of questions was prepared and mailed to samples of industrial, social, and experimental psychologists. The inquiry was completed in 1952. The mailing list, compiled from the *1951 Directory of the American Psychological Association*, consisted of a random sample of 200 members in each of the three divisions: Industrial and Business Psychology, Personality and Social Psychology, and Experimental Psychology. Usable replies were received from 65% of the industrial psychologists, 52% of the social, and 48% of the experimental.

Comparisons of those returning and not returning the questionnaire, in respect to certain biographic items taken from the *APA* directory (age, sex, section of country, and whether the individual was doing work for industry), revealed only one difference beyond the .05 probability level—a difference in the direction of undersampling women among the social psychologists. Among social

psychologists our results may also slightly overrepresent the South and under-represent the East ($P = .05$); and among industrial psychologists, the returns slightly under-represent those engaged in work for industry ($P = .07$).

As another check on the sample, we compared the content of responses to the first mailing with later returns secured from a follow-up mailing. No significant differences were found. Altogether, these fragments of evidence indicate that the obtained sample was reasonably representative of psychologists composing the three selected *APA* divisions.

RESULTS: INITIAL GENERAL QUESTIONS

The questionnaire began with a very general query asking for the respondent's overall appraisal of industrial psychology:

On the basis of whatever knowledge and impressions you have about developments in the field of industrial psychology, do you believe that the general run of activities in this area, up to the present time, have been such that psychologists can: . . . (here followed the 5-item checklist quoted in Table 1).

More than half the psychologists in each group subscribed to the statement that gives approval "to a considerable extent but with fairly important reservations and criticisms." In addition, about 10% of the social and the experimental psychologists checked the more negative statement specifying "major reservations and criticisms." On the whole, industrial psychologists did not differ significantly from the other two groups in their appraisal, and those employed in industry and government replied fully as critically as did those in universities. Since comparable results are not available in regard to other professional areas, we cannot say whether industrial psychology fares particularly badly. Even without such comparisons, however, the findings do indicate enough critical doubts to present a challenge to those interested in fostering the healthy growth of the industrial field.

Respondents were next invited to state in their own words:

¹ Now in San Diego, California; the present study was conducted while a graduate student at Wayne State University.

TABLE 1
OPINIONS OF PSYCHOLOGISTS ON THE GENERAL RUN
OF ACTIVITIES IN INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Industrial Psychology Activities Are Such That Psychologists Can:	Percentage of Psychologists Giving Each Response		
	Industrial (N = 129)	Social (N = 100)	Experimental (N = 95)
Fully approve them	3.9	2.0	3.2
Approve them in the main but with minor reservations and criticisms	31.8	30.0	36.8
Approve them to a considerable extent but with fairly important reservations and criticisms	61.2	59.0	50.5
Approve them only in limited respects and with major reservations and criticisms	3.1	9.0	9.5
Not approve them	0.0	0.0	0.0
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

What is the principal criticism, if any, that you would make about developments in the field of industrial psychology?

A classification of the responses yields the results summarized in Table 2.

To convey the flavor of the first several categories, we quote a few illustrative responses:

Not enough concern with basic psychology: Not enough application of well established theory and principles. Not enough application of experimental methods. Not enough emphasis on experimental design. Application tends to outrun the necessary basic research.

Too many professionally inadequate practitioners: Many people entering the field do not have adequate experience in industry. Too many practitioners with inadequate experimental background and training. Too much of the work has been handled by untrained and unqualified personnel. We're training only yes-men who get lost in the general field of personnel administration. A good industrial psychologist should be able to do something other than statistical analysis and test construction and administration.

Overemphasis on selection techniques: Too much emphasis on selection. Too much emphasis on testing. Overemphasis, perhaps, on a psychometric approach to problems of selection and placement. Personnel selection problems have taken up too large a share of research effort.

Pro-management bias: A strong tendency for industrial psychologists to butter their bread by becoming strong management minded. Paid for by management and therefore slanted in their interest. Has been too much under either direct or indirect control of large industrial concerns—this tends to cause a one-sided bias (conscious or un-

conscious) in the types of problems chosen. They tend to be one-sided—have a pro-management orientation.

Decidedly the most frequent criticism is the charge that industrial psychology fails to make sufficient use of basic psychological knowledge and methodology. This is the chief criticism, not only in the minds of social and experimental psychologists, but it is also stressed by the industrial group itself. In considering the percentages in this table, it is to be remembered that they represent *volunteered* criticisms and that many other respondents would concur if they were questioned regarding each point separately.

The greatest differences occur between the industrial group and the other two in the number of criticisms directed at professional inadequacies and at overemphasis on selection techniques. More frequent criticism of these matters by industrial psychologists is presumably due to their closer contact with actual work in the field. The complaint about inadequate practitioners is largely confined to those members of the industrial group who are themselves engaged in industry (46% of them offer criticisms of this type). On the other hand, this group was less inclined than their academic fellows to criticize

TABLE 2
VOLUNTEERED CRITICISMS OF DEVELOPMENTS
IN INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Criticism	Percentage of Psychologists Volunteering Each Criticism ^a		
	Industrial (N = 129)	Social (N = 103)	Experimental (N = 95)
Not enough concern with basic psychology	30.2	28.1	33.7
Too many professionally inadequate practitioners	30.2	17.5	8.5
Overemphasis on selection techniques	22.5	10.7	10.5
Pro-management bias	10.1	16.5	12.6
Overselling by psychologists	10.1	8.7	14.7
Too little work on "human relations"	10.1	7.8	1.1
Studies not coordinated and cumulative	6.2	5.8	6.3
Miscellaneous	6.2	7.8	8.4
No criticism offered	6.2	14.6	17.8
	131.8%	117.5%	113.6%

^a Percentages total more than 100% since more than one criticism could be given by each respondent.

TABLE 3
VOLUNTEERED OPINIONS ON RESEARCH
NEEDING GREATER EMPHASIS

Research on:	Percentage of Psychologists Volunteering Each Opinion ^a		
	Industrial (N = 129)	Social (N = 103)	Experi- men-tal (N = 95)
Human relations; group dynamics	37.2	28.2	15.8
Personnel techniques	26.4	19.8	12.6
Effects of industry on the individual	16.3	21.4	8.4
Motivation and morale of workers	13.2	15.5	7.4
Improvement of research methods and theory	13.2	4.9	17.9
Labor-management relationships	13.2	9.7	7.4
Human Engineering	8.5	2.9	14.7
Management personalities and functions	8.5	6.9	3.2
Miscellaneous	3.9	2.9	2.2
No opinion expressed	11.6	21.4	25.3
	152.0%	133.6%	114.9%

^a Percentages total more than 100% since more than one suggestion could be given by each respondent.

the emphasis on selection procedures (only 14% of them offered criticisms on this score).

One other free-response question asked:

What types of industrial psychological research, if any, do you believe should be given greater emphasis than they have had?

The distribution of answers is shown in Table 3.

The current popularity of applied and motivational psychology is apparent in these replies. This is naturally much more pronounced among the social and the industrial psychologists than among the experimentalists. The latter, in line with their own specialization, stressed the need for more work on research methods and theory, and the development of "human engineering." The industrial psychologists differ from the social psychologists principally in their degree of emphasis on these same points—that is, they fall midway between the experimental group and the social psychologists in regard to increased attention to research methods and human engineering, while agreeing with the social psychologists in other respects (though, suggestively, with slightly less attention to the effects of industry on workers).

RESULTS: TRAINING AND SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION

A first question on training reveals the unsettled state of thinking and wide divergence of views on these matters within all the psychological groups questioned. We asked:

Which of the following do you believe most deserve increased emphasis in a graduate program for the training of industrial psychologist? Please rank from 1 (most deserving increased emphasis) to 8 (least deserving increased emphasis). (The eight aspects of training shown in Table 4 were then listed in haphazard order.)

In Table 4 the types of training are arranged according to the average rank assigned them by the total of all respondents. Several significant conclusions emerge from an analysis of the rankings. One fact of importance is the tendency of the industrial group to resemble the experimentalists in favoring training emphasis on experimental psychology, statistics, and theory rather than agreeing with the social psychologists in stressing social and clinical psychology instead. These differences of opinion express a major choice confronting institutions responsible for training industrial psychologists. The pros and cons of each position will need full airing and consideration if a wise consensus is to be reached.

Courses in related social sciences fared badly. They received the lowest rank by all three groups.

TABLE 4
ASPECTS OF TRAINING RANKED AS TO
DESERVING INCREASED EMPHASIS

Aspect of Training	Mean Rank Assigned by Each Group of Psychologists ^a		
	Industrial (N = 129)	Social (N = 97)	Experi- men-tal (N = 94)
Experimental design and experimental psychology	3.0	3.9	2.2
Practical experience doing psychological work in industry	3.4	3.8	4.8
Social psychology	4.6	3.4	4.5
Statistics	3.9	4.9	3.7
Psychological theory	4.4	4.8	4.0
Clinical training	5.2	4.7	5.7
Practical experience as a worker in industry	5.5	5.2	5.4
Courses in related social sciences	6.2	6.2	5.9

^a Rank "1" means most deserving of increased emphasis; rank "8" means least deserving of increased emphasis.

It is particularly noteworthy that social psychologists joined in the low rating (though one-third of them did rate this aspect of training in the top four ranks). We venture a guess that a sampling of nonpsychologists familiar with human problems of industry would rank the need for social science training higher. It may be that psychologists need to re-examine their judgments on the matter. It is pertinent to note that industrial psychologists employed in industry (not shown separately in the table) emphasized experimental psychology and statistics a little less than did the academic industrial group and they gave higher average rankings to clinical psychology and related social sciences than did their colleagues.

More striking than the disagreements among the psychological groups is the great amount of variation among individual opinions within each group. The scattering of individual rankings of each aspect of training is reflected in the absence of average rankings near the high or low extremes. Further analysis shows that three-fourths of the 24 average rankings in the table have standard deviations of 2.0 or more. In fact, every one of the eight aspects of training received ranks all the way from 1 to 8, and, with one trivial exception, this is true of the ranking by each of the three groups separately. Even the lowest ranking item was rated above average (i.e., ranks 1-4) by more than 20% of each of the three groups; likewise the highest ranking item received below average ranks by 21%, 38%, and 16%, respectively, of the three groups. In regard to most of the training items, some 30-50% of each group dissented from the majority and placed them in the opposite half of the ranking scale. Taken as a whole, the findings point unmistakably to the conclusion that there is little consensus among psychologists, including industrial psychologists, as to professional training needs in this field.

Next, a series of simple check-response questions was asked in order to ascertain the extent of agreement with certain criticisms of the scientific orientation of industrial psychologists. On each item, respondents were to indicate whether they agreed, disagreed, or were doubtful. The questions and results follow.

Industrial psychologists tend to: Restrict their work too much to the strictly scientific rather than tackling problems that must, at present, be dealt with by less rigorously scientific methods. Work too much on problems that cannot at present be handled by strictly scientific methods.

TABLE 5

OPINIONS ON WHETHER INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGISTS RESTRICT THEIR WORK TOO MUCH TO THE STRICTLY SCIENTIFIC

Response	Percentage of Psychologists Giving Each Response		
	Industrial	Social	Experimental
Work too much on strictly scientific			
Agree	39.8	37.9	12.8
Disagree	38.2	40.2	59.3
Doubtful	22.0	21.9	27.9
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
<i>N</i>	123	87	86
Work too much on the <i>not</i> strictly scientific			
Agree	10.2	8.8	19.0
Disagree	50.0	48.7	43.0
Doubtful	39.8	42.5	38.0
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
<i>N</i>	118	80	79

The majority of industrial, social, and experimental psychologists do not believe (see Table 5) either that industrial psychologists restrict themselves too much to the strictly scientific or that they work too much on problems that cannot be handled by strictly scientific means. However, nearly 40% of the industrial and the social psychologists believe that industrial psychologists do restrict their work too much to the strictly scientific, while only 10% or so believe that industrial psychologists work too much on problems that cannot at present be handled by strictly scientific methods. On the whole they would apparently like to see industrial psychologists work more on challenging problems even when these are not susceptible to a rigorously scientific approach. A larger percentage of the experimental group took the opposing view, only 13% feeling there is too strict adherence to scientific rigor as against 19% stating that there is not enough.

Not only is there this disagreement between experimentalists and others, but also notable is the internal division among industrial and social psychologists. Almost equal numbers agreed and disagreed with the proposition that work is confined too much to the strictly scientific. Here again, then, we come upon an unresolved difference of views that calls for continuing discussion by psy-

TABLE 6
OPINIONS REGARDING EMPHASIS ON PRACTICAL
VS. BASIC TRAINING

Response	Percentage of Psychologists Giving Each Response		
	Industrial	Social	Experi- men-tal
Too much attention to practical problems			
Agree	20.0	37.9	61.2
Disagree	58.4	40.2	14.1
Doubtful	21.6	21.9	24.7
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
<i>N</i>	120	87	85
Too much attention to basic psychology			
Agree	29.9	8.7	2.7
Disagree	39.3	48.8	69.3
Doubtful	30.8	42.5	28.0
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
<i>N</i>	117	80	75

chologists concerned with professional developments.

A related two-pronged question, again asking for agree-disagree response to each part, followed:

The training of industrial psychologists gives too much attention to: The solving of practical problems rather than basic psychological knowledge. Basic psychological knowledge rather than the solving of practical problems.

The figures of Table 6 reveal a large amount of disagreement between groups and within groups. Industrial psychologists were much more inclined than the other groups to look with favor on the practical emphasis. Their views differ especially sharply from those of the experimental psychologists, with social psychologists about midway between. The number of industrial psychologists thinking that too much attention is given to basic psychology was greater than the number saying that there is too much attention to the practical. In sharp contrast, strikingly few of the other two groups agreed to the second proposition as compared to the number endorsing the first. On this issue, the industrial psychologists diverge in rather extreme degree from their more academic colleagues.

Similar to the preceding point is the difference between industrial psychologists and others in answer to the twin questions whether "industrial psy-

chologists give too many practical judgments that reach beyond their scientific results" or that they are "too unwilling" to give such judgments. The industrial group is pretty evenly split between those who lean each way on the two parts of this question (with another one-third responding "doubtful"), while, by contrast, the experimental group (other than the 40% "doubtful") responded 3 to 1 that practical judgments are too often given that go beyond the scientific results and they *disagreed* 4 to 1 (apart from the 50% "doubtful") that industrial psychologists are too unwilling to give such practical judgments. Social psychologists stand between the other two groups.

One further item deals with the question of theory. It asks for expression of agreement or disagreement with the statement that "industrial psychologists, in their work, do not make adequate use of available psychological theory." Approximately half of each group agreed. Most of the remainder expressed doubt rather than disagreement. One-fourth of the industrial psychologists disagreed; only 15% of the other two groups did so.

The only remaining item within the block of questions under consideration inquired whether "it would be desirable if industrial psychologists more frequently formulated their own research problems instead of working on problems assigned to them." The great majority of all three groups replied in the affirmative. About 1 in 10 disagreed, and one-fourth remained doubtful. The preponderance of feeling on the point would indicate that psychologists are fairly well united in favor of a freer hand in the selection and framing of research questions.

In regard to all these agree-disagree questions, we find only minor differences between the industrial psychologists employed in industry and those not so engaged. Substantial and similar amounts of disagreement occur among individuals in both of these subgroups.

RESULTS: SOCIAL-VALUE ORIENTATION

Two questions inquired in general terms about the effects of the industrial psychologist's social values on his work:

Do you believe that the social values of industrial psychologists have effects on their scientific work and writing that are: very important, moderately important, slightly important, not at all important?

Approximately half of the respondents in each of our three groups said "very important" (social psy-

chologists and industrial psychologists employed in industry chose this response somewhat more than the other groups), and most of the remainder said "moderately important." Nevertheless, 1 in 8 of the industrial and social psychologists and 1 in 5 of the experimentalists replied that the effects are only "slightly important" or "not at all important." This, too, may be a subject on which additional facts and more discussion among psychologists would be useful.

Do you believe that the effects of the industrial psychologist's social orientation and social values on his work should be of: great concern to industrial psychology, considerable concern, very little concern, no concern?

The distribution of replies was similar to that on the preceding question. Again, about half chose the first response, and the vast majority of others chose the second. The percentages saying "very little concern" or "no concern" ran as follows: industrial, 9.2%; social, 6.8%; experimental, 17.2%.

The questionnaire included a series of more specific items aimed at ascertaining whether the work of industrial psychologists is thought to be biased in a pro-management or pro-labor direction. Respondents were asked to check "agree," "disagree," or "doubtful" in response to each of the four parts of the question.

Industrial psychologists carry on their work: Without enough acceptance of a management frame of reference. Without enough acceptance of a labor frame of reference. Too much within a management frame of reference. Too much within a labor frame of reference.

Responses to these items are summarized in Table 7. In all three groups—but especially among social and experimental psychologists—greater numbers agreed than disagreed that industrial psychologists operate too much within a management frame of reference and without enough labor viewpoint. Consistent with this, most respondents in all groups rejected the idea that industrial psychology is not sufficiently management oriented or that it is too labor oriented. It seems remarkable, incidentally, that even small numbers should agree with the last item—asserting that industrial psychology is too labor oriented—and perhaps still more remarkable that such large percentages consider the matter "doubtful."

Fairly large differences are found between industrial psychologists and the other groups on all except the last of the four items. One-fourth of the

industrial group said that there is not enough acceptance of management's frame of reference, while very much smaller proportions of social and experimental psychologists agreed with this view. One-third of the industrial psychologists *disagreed* with the idea that there is too much acceptance of management's frame of reference as contrasted with only 12% and 10% of the other two groups. Even among industrial psychologists, considerable difference of opinion exists as seen, for example, in the facts that (a) 43% agreed while 20% disagreed that there is not enough acceptance of a labor frame of reference and (b) almost equal numbers agreed

TABLE 7
OPINIONS ON WHETHER INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY
IS ORIENTED IN A PRO-LABOR OR A
PRO-MANAGEMENT DIRECTION

Response	Percentage of Psychologists Giving Each Response		
	Industrial	Social	Experi- men- tal
Not enough acceptance of management views			
Agree	24.6	9.9	4.0
Disagree	50.8	64.2	53.3
Doubtful	24.6	25.9	42.7
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
<i>N</i>	114	81	75
Not enough acceptance of labor views			
Agree	43.0	57.8	46.1
Disagree	20.4	14.5	10.3
Doubtful	36.6	27.7	43.6
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
<i>N</i>	112	83	79
Too much acceptance of management views			
Agree	37.5	63.9	48.1
Disagree	34.0	12.0	10.1
Doubtful	28.5	24.1	41.8
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
<i>N</i>	112	83	79
Too much acceptance of labor views			
Agree	5.4	6.4	2.8
Disagree	59.1	61.5	45.8
Doubtful	35.5	32.1	51.4
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
<i>N</i>	102	78	72

TABLE 8
SIDE USUALLY TAKEN IN DISPUTES BETWEEN
EMPLOYERS AND UNIONS

Usually Side With:	Percentage of Psychologists Giving Each Response		
	Industrial (N = 117)	Social (N = 101)	Experi- mental (N = 89)
Unions	16.2	36.6	23.6
Employers	15.4	4.9	6.7
Neither side	35.0	16.9	27.0
About equally often with each	33.4	41.6	42.7
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

and disagreed that industrial psychology is carried on too much within a management frame of reference. Among industrial psychologists employed in industry, a larger proportion rejected this implied charge of pro-management bias (24% agreed; 43% disagreed).

It seemed reasonable to suppose that answers to the preceding questions would to some extent reflect the respondents' own values in regard to labor-management relations. Accordingly, a question was asked concerning feelings about the parties involved in industrial disputes:

In disputes between employers and unions, do you usually side with: unions, employers, neither side, about equally often with employers and with unions.

Responses to this question (Table 8) show that the great majority of psychologists in all three groups express a neutral attitude. It is of interest, nevertheless, that, among those who do take a definite stand, the social and the experimental psychologists are much more likely to side with unions while those in the industrial group are about equally on the side of employers and unions. There is also a sharp difference here between the industrial psychologists who work in industry and those who do not. Of the former, 27% side with employers, 10% with unions; of the latter, it is 6% with employers and 14% with unions.

As expected, judgments whether industrial psychology is too management oriented are intimately linked to personal inclination toward management or labor. With only a few exceptions, the psychologists who side with unions think that industrial psychology is too pro-management, while those who

side with employers think that it is not too pro-management.

A last question attempted to tap differences in value orientation by securing opinions about the comparative desirability of several types of work in the field of industrial psychology:

Which of the following types of work would you most like to see the ablest young research workers in industrial psychology enter? Please rank from 1 (most desirable) to 8 (least desirable). (The eight types of employment shown in Table 9 were then listed—they were not arranged in order of preference, of course, as they are in the table.)

Industrial psychologists again differed significantly from the social and the experimental groups. For example, though all three groups gave top ranking to pursuit of one's own research in a large university, the industrial group placed this choice first by a much smaller margin and much less consistently than did the other groups. It was ranked first by 39% of industrial psychologists, by 48% of the social, and 60% of the experimental. It was ranked fifth or lower by 32% of the industrial group as compared with 19% and 11% of the other

TABLE 9
TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT RANKED AS TO
DESIRABILITY

Type of Employment	Mean Rank Assigned by Each Group of Psychologists ^a		
	Industrial (N = 123)	Social (N = 96)	Experi- mental (N = 88)
Research department of a large university in which he would be allowed to develop his own work	3.1	2.5	2.1
Personnel department of a company	3.5	4.4	5.1
Firm of industrial consultants	3.7	4.5	4.8
Research department of a large university in which he works on assigned prob- lems	4.0	4.0	3.4
Research department of a labor union	4.5	3.9	4.0
Government, on nonmilitary problems	4.6	3.4	4.2
Government, on military problems	5.5	5.3	5.2
Advertising agency	6.1	7.0	7.1

^a Rank "1" means most desirable for able, young research workers to enter; rank "8" means least desirable.

groups. Similarly, though all groups gave last place to advertising agency work (a result of some interest in itself!), it was ranked lowest by larger percentages of the non-industrial groups; and while only 5% and 6% of the latter ranked it fourth or higher, 23% of industrial psychologists did so. The industrial group gave considerably higher rankings than the other groups to personnel department work and industrial consulting work and correspondingly lower ranking to work for a labor union.

Quite apart from the extensive individual and group differences, the attitudes expressed by these psychologists as a whole are of some importance. This is particularly true regarding their estimates of government employment, especially in the case of work on military problems. Psychologists and administrators concerned with the development of military psychology will surely recognize a problem and a challenge in these results.

IN CONCLUSION

Several of the results that have been reported are particularly worth singling out for a final word. In general, the findings provide a partial sketch of how industrial psychology is perceived and evaluated by different groups of psychologists.

The most common criticism is that industrial psychology is not sufficiently concerned with its ties to basic psychology. It needs to carry on more fundamental research and to make more adequate use of psychological theory.

In addition, serious questions are raised concerning the areas of research that are emphasized or

slighted, the professional qualifications of many practitioners, tendencies to offer psychological judgments that reach beyond scientific results, frequent overselling of industrial applications, and an excessive accent on the practical in training industrial psychologists.

Many psychologists also charge that industrial psychology is too management oriented, that it operates too much within a management frame of reference. On all these issues it appears that industrial psychologists might well give serious thought to the meaning of the criticisms and to needed changes that may be indicated. Where this much expression of doubt and criticism occurs among qualified scholarly colleagues—and indeed, within the ranks of the industrial psychology profession itself—it would seem to call for vigorous efforts either to effect changes and improvements of the activities or to correct erroneous impressions in the minds of the critics. Perhaps the most reasonable conclusion would be that there is need for both types of endeavor.

Finally, it should be noted that our results reveal wide differences of opinion among the psychologists questioned, not only between the industrial psychologists and the other professional groups but strikingly also within the ranks of each group. Scarcely less than the criticisms themselves, these sharp disagreements indicate need for further study and continued exchange of views in order that industrial psychology may better develop in accordance with the standards and value judgments of the entire profession.

THE ROLE OF THE PSYCHOLOGIST IN LABOR UNIONS¹

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ON the face of things, there seems to be no reason why a psychology of business and industry should flourish in modern society while a psychology of labor should be essentially nonexistent. Psychologists, either in a service or a research capacity, have devoted very little attention to the problems of the millions of individuals organized in labor unions.

Psychologists' neglect of this area of human problems can be seen from a careful review of articles in *Psychological Abstracts*. The six volumes from 1950 through 1955 of that journal contain references to only 61 articles having direct or indirect relevance for labor unions. Only two of the 61 articles were published in APA journals. Only 16 of the 61 authors were APA members. Of those 16 authors, only six held membership in the Division of Industrial and Business Psychology.

There are probably many reasons for the failure of psychologists to take cognizance of the problems of unions and union members. One factor has been the inclination among labor leaders (9, 10) to view psychology as a captive of management. Research on job evaluation, for example, is often considered by labor people to be an attempt on the part of management to use psychological methods to impose lower pay rates on labor (11).

It may be that now is a good time for psychologists to evaluate not only their relations to organized labor but to consider the possibility of creating a systematic and useful psychology of labor.

THE UNION AND PSYCHOLOGY

Industrial Unrest. Progressive trade unions are concerned with such symptoms of industrial unrest and dissatisfaction as absenteeism, excessive turnover, slowdowns, grievances, strikes, and picketing. This concern is based on an awareness of the social obligation the union has to the community at large as well as to its members. Nearly all management is also interested in these problems, even if from a somewhat different point of view.

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Union leadership, being in intimate contact with the rank and file, has first-hand knowledge of specific negative feelings and attitudes on the part of union members. These leaders, however, being committed to a partisan viewpoint, cannot always function effectively when dealing with management. The "labor psychologist" can provide objective but sympathetic liaison, once he overcomes union suspicions that he is concerned primarily with management. It is part of the problem facing psychology today in the field of labor relations to convince unions that this discipline can be of genuine service, not merely to management, but to organized labor as well.

While unions and management are both concerned with the manifestations of labor unrest, not enough has been said by either side about the *underlying causes*. Here is where the labor psychologist can be of inestimable value to both parties. Inarticulate forms of dissatisfaction can be revealed through the attitudes of union members about conditions within the plant. Those vague ill-defined feelings which often are the forerunners of industrial strife can frequently be determined through use of attitude-measuring instruments. The labor psychologist should gather relevant data regarding "quits" by the use of "exit interviews" on the union's own home grounds. It is important to point out to union leadership that the information obtained may, in many cases, provide the necessary facts with which to approach management for remedial action.

Relations with Management. Unions might well explore the important variables specific to the problem of cooperation between themselves and the industrial organizations with which they have contractual obligations. Thus, in a research problem set up to analyze the psychological principles involved in successful cooperation between union and industrial management (15), it was found that the attitudes and personalities of union officials and management officials were the factors promoting or hindering the development of cooperation.

That the main sources of dissatisfaction actually occur in areas other than those commonly assumed

to produce conflicts (e.g., wages, speed up) was shown in a study (7) that reported the results of an opinion survey of 140 members of a midwestern union. Responses to a 28-item questionnaire revealed that the main sources of dissatisfaction among the members were in the areas of communication and "practical day-to-day problems."

Unions would also find it advantageous to acquire some knowledge of the support they might expect from their members before embarking on negotiations with employer groups. This is especially true where there is likelihood of a breakdown in negotiations, leading to the introduction of drastic measures such as strikes, boycotts, etc. Within such a frame of reference, one study (18) was able to ascertain the attitudes of a union local in relation to worker solidarity. By means of a questionnaire, a measure of the members' loyalty to the union was obtained; in addition, the extent to which they agreed with union policy, their attitudes toward minority groups, and attitudes of special groups of members provided important insights to the local leaders.

Working Conditions Within the Plant. Various studies in the field of employee dynamics (3, 6, 14, 23) have shown that, when management takes into account the feelings and needs of workers by implementing participation procedures, tensions within the industrial organization tend to diminish and are usually accompanied by noticeable increases in production. Thus, under democratic management, decisions as to working conditions and methods are made by group participation. This has been attained by the employment of group concurrence, the recognition by management of decision making as a training problem, and feelings of the group members who participate in decision making. The psychologist's job, at this point, would concern itself with making known to management the effectiveness of democratic procedures and of the benefits that can accrue to all concerned. A research project for the plant in question, under joint auspices of union and management, would be especially advantageous for the labor psychologist to convince a skeptical management, or for that matter the union itself, of the effectiveness of this approach to labor relations.

In line with this, Bavelas' well-known study in decision making by group participation (3), while not of course under union auspices, is a case in point. Female sewing machine operators were asked to set their own production goals according

to group participation and mutual decision methods. The results were a higher production goal manifested at the end of the experimental period and a change in attitudes toward the work situation.

In another study, reported by Coch and French (6), "dynamic group motivation" was utilized to improve production quotas. It was theorized by the experimenters that individuals resist change when frustrated by strong "group processes and forces." When all the employees of an experimental group participated in decisions regarding a change in work methods, group pressures, and individual frustrations induced by them, disappeared. One of the additional effects noted was that, when participant decision making was instituted, turnover was sharply reduced.

The programs and decisions that lend themselves to employee participation include such activities as the development of recreational programs, employee services and security programs, wage administration and wage incentive plans, merit rating programs, campaigns involving public relations, and employee relations and communication programs. Unions holding contracts with small scale, industrial operators may find that the labor psychologist can make a sizable contribution to morale and increased earnings, when this type of research and information is brought to the attention of more-or-less autocratic managements.

An important factor that psychologists and unions will have to contend with is, of course, the fear of most conservative management that employee participation in decision making will undermine management's control. One approach to the solution of this problem is suggested by the thoroughly objective and scholarly investigation of labor-management relations completed by Chamberlin (4) at Yale's Labor and Management Center. He inquired into the actual inroads made by labor in an area that had heretofore been regarded as the sole prerogative of management. The degree of union penetration was thoroughly evaluated and found to constitute no threat to managerial control. On the basis of the findings, Chamberlin strongly emphasized the need for functional integration between management and union. Thus we see that the labor psychologist, working as part of the union team, can make an important contribution to labor's relations with management.

Internal Union Organization. Attention should

also be focused on the psychologist's potential contributions to the union itself as an organization. Many problems arise within unions in connection with leader-member relations (2, 8, 13, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 25, 26), which may be solved by the application of techniques developed by psychologists through empirical research. In this respect, the problems of training individual members to assume the duties of union leadership, of the assessment of leadership ability—whom to bring up from the ranks to leadership levels—are problems similar to those that confront industry. Selection and evaluation procedures through the use of properly validated tests, for example, may be utilized by psychologists working within the union structure. This may be accomplished in essentially the same way as is done in industry. The measurement of such psychological behavior characteristics as attitudes, motivation, intelligence, and personality is as important in determining the qualifications for union leadership as it is for determining who should be brought up to executive level in industry.

Communication within the union structure is another important area for psychological investigation. One instance is the readability of union contracts. When these are beyond the reading level of most union members, they may serve as a source of industrial friction. Content analysis of several union contracts (16, 17, 24) have shown that most were beyond the comprehension of the majority of the members affiliated with the unions in question. The contribution of the psychologist could be substantial, especially in regard to contract construction, as part of his function as a member of the contract negotiation team.

PSYCHOLOGICAL RESEARCH WITH UNION POPULATIONS

Labor unions may also provide psychologists with large populations for psychological research that have heretofore remained relatively untapped for such purposes.² The few reported studies available (1, 5, 12) give some indication of the potential wealth of data that might be expected from this source. For example, a group of union business agents was used to determine the reliability and validity of a test for empathetic ability (25). Role-playing technique (1) was used with a group of

² Rosen (20) reports that a project is under way in a midwestern union to determine the roles and role-expectations of union business agents.

union committeemen to obtain some measure of the causes of wildcat strikes and the means for their prevention. In another research study (5), a sample was drawn from a union population to determine whether vocational interest patterns could differentiate between members of a trade union group and a composite group of workers-in-general. The results of this type of investigation may be useful for the guidance of young people contemplating entry into various occupations.

Several morale studies with union populations have been reported in the literature. In a study undertaken with a large midwestern industrial CIO union, Rose (19) found that union leaders are not always aware of the possible low morale that may exist in many of their locals. Rose suggested that the reasons for the existence of the problem stem from the fact that unions traditionally have concerned themselves mainly with job security and wages for their members to the exclusion of other important psychological factors such as the side effects of union activities or the lack of such activities on the community at large.

When unions concern themselves with political action, morale can become a particularly knotty problem. Thus in a study aimed at the opinions of a sample of union members on political action activity of their union (12), the rank and file revealed a split down the middle as to whether or not they felt the union should engage in such political action. Only 55% responded in the affirmative—that is, in support of official union policy. A further indication that morale was far from optimal was the finding that only two-thirds of the stewards and local officers supported the union on political action.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PSYCHOLOGY

These few examples of research with trade union samples offer several implications for psychologists and for trade unionists as well. One of them is that, if unions are to succeed with, for example, large-scale training programs in political education, then some reliance should be placed on the techniques developed by psychologists in their leadership, motivation, and learning research. Another is that psychologists should be prepared to engage in additional research (beyond that reported in this paper) for the accretion of knowledge that would ultimately result in benefits for the organized worker and the community. Such research can

take place in the area of small group dynamics wherein interaction processes of members, stewards, or officials may be observed, coded, and measured. Another possible area for research concerns the reliability and validation of rating scales and tests for the selection of stewards, business agents, and other local union officials.

The arguments presented in this paper indicate that psychology has very much to offer trade unions in terms of specific skilled services. Unions, in turn, inasmuch as they contain a population of individuals upon whom relatively meagre research has been inaugurated, can contribute important empirical findings to the existing body of psychological knowledge. Each in its own constituted uniqueness has a great deal to offer the other. It is expected that, for psychology at least, new theoretical concepts in social and industrial psychology may be the happy outcome of this suggested "labor psychology."

It is not likely that unions will immediately react favorably to the idea of a labor psychology. However, it is hoped that the considerations presented will serve to draw attention to the possibilities in this scarcely tapped area of research.

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1957 REPORT ON HEALTH AND ACCIDENT INSURANCE FOR PSYCHOLOGISTS

JUST one year ago (May 1, 1956) the APA Income Protection Plan went into operation. The plan was set up to provide insured members with a continuing income should they be unable to work at their regular jobs because of sickness or accident.

To date, 3,465 members have enrolled in the plan. 1,153 elected Plan A (a seven-day waiting period), while 2,312 elected Plan B (a 28-day waiting period). Within each of these plans, the weekly benefits chosen were as follows:

Weekly Benefit	Plan A	Plan B
\$25	172	282
50	262	496
75	221	582
100	498	952

Enrollments have been received from all 48 States, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and nine foreign countries. New York State has the largest enrollment (709); California is next highest with 422. The foreign countries represented are Canada (44), England (2), Venezuela (2), Puerto Rico (2), Lebanon, Netherlands West Indies, Australia, India, and British Columbia (each with one enrolled member).

The total of premiums paid in by members this year will approximate \$233,000. A total of 111 members became disabled and were paid, or are being paid, income benefits—of these, 19 were for accidents and 92 for sickness. The company reports that 66 of these claims have been paid in full and are now closed, while 45 are still being paid. A total of \$27,827 had been paid out in claims on the APA Plan as of January 1, 1957. It should be noted that the premium figures cited above cover a one-year period from May 1, 1956 to May 1, 1957, while the claims figures are only for the first seven months of operation.

Members of the plan may be concerned with the wide gap between the premiums received and claims paid. To understand this gap, it is important to realize that there is a lag in reporting claims, so that the actual amount of benefits that will be paid

to insured members for the full year will undoubtedly exceed the amount already paid by a substantial sum. Furthermore, some of the current claims will extend into the future, and it is essential that adequate reserves be maintained. Finally, there will undoubtedly be many additional claims reported between January 1, 1957 and May 1, 1957.

For these reasons, it should be readily apparent why it is not possible, at this time, to ascertain the full extent of the claims that will be paid out or the reserves needed to cover incurred liabilities. A complete report on the first full year of operation will be published in the November issue of the *American Psychologist*. Only at that time will it be possible to assess accurately the success of the plan. On the basis of experience thus far, the committee anticipates that it will be able to make a favorable report to the membership in November.

Members of the plan seem to be very well satisfied with its operation. The committee is pleased to report that it has received no adverse comment from any members about the way in which claims have been handled by Liberty Mutual. At the same time, we have received many favorable comments expressing satisfaction with the plan and with the way in which Liberty Mutual has administered it.

One problem which has created unnecessary difficulties in processing claims promptly has been the tendency of some members to delay in filing their claims. As stated on the Certificate issued to each enrolled member, claims must be filed within 20 days after the member becomes eligible for benefits. Members who fail to file within the 20-day period run the risk of having payment on their claims denied. The committee strongly urges members to observe this provision for their own protection. Not only will they receive benefit payments sooner, but it will be easier for Liberty Mutual to verify the claim or obtain any additional information that may be required. Prompt reporting can thus help to avoid misunderstanding and delays in the payment of claims.

Members of the APA not enrolled in the plan

are reminded that they may apply at any time under the following conditions:

1. New associates whose membership in APA began as of January 1, 1957, have until July 1, 1957, to make application without evidence of insurability.
2. All other eligible APA members may apply, but acceptance into the plan will depend on the presentation of evidence of insurability acceptable to Liberty Mutual.

The acceptance and growth of the plan by APA members has been very gratifying. This growth appears to have a sound basis, and there is good reason for optimism with respect to continuing development.

COMMITTEE ON HEALTH AND
ACCIDENT INSURANCE

CARL H. RUSH, JR.
BENJAMIN SHIMBERG, Chairman
PAUL W. THAYER

SUGGESTIONS FOR PUBLIC RELATIONS

THE School of Public Relations of Boston University had a slogan: "Public Relations is Everyone's Business." It is becoming increasingly clear that the public information and public relations functions of the American Psychological Association must be performed, indeed are performed, intentionally or unintentionally by every member of the association.

There are promising possibilities for Central Office and APA committees to advance public understanding of psychology as a science and a profession. Much is being done to realize the possibilities. The Central Office accomplishes a great deal in the public relations field. Many of these accomplishments remain largely unknown to our membership. We cannot estimate the value of the contacts with writers and reporters, nor can we know when efforts will lead to important public relations effects. The spadework, initiative, and help of the Central Office staff which have led, in part, to the current *Life* magazine series on psychology is a good example of such efforts. Other efforts and the results now being realized may become apparent later.

There are also severe limitations on what Central Office and APA committees can do. There are many public relations and public information functions which must be performed on the state and local levels. In this connection we have two suggestions. The first relates to each of us as psychologists; the second, to psychological associations as groups.

1. Psychologists are constantly invited to give speeches and addresses to influential groups of people. Available information indicates that even educated adults do not have very clear concepts of psychologists and their work. It can be assumed that laymen and our colleagues in other professions

are interested in knowing more than they now know about psychologists, especially about the one who is to address them. Therefore, it is vital, when addressing groups, to have oneself introduced, or to introduce oneself, as a *psychologist*.

a. Briefly make it clear to your audience that *you represent the scientific or professional field of psychology*. If this is true, then the representations can be made with integrity and dignity.

b. Briefly explain what you conceive to be the field and responsibility of psychologists.

2. The problem applies with even greater force to state organizations, since the latter are assuming an increasingly responsible role in association affairs. Great opportunities exist at the grass roots for raising the level of public understanding of psychology. Therefore, it is suggested that each state association appoint a public relations committee with an active, responsible, and capable chairman. A seemingly effective activity of such a chairman would be the establishment of a speakers bureau. Here the preceding suggestion becomes especially relevant.

Eventually it may be possible for some states to have public relations committee chairmen work part time for their associations. Yet no mass effort can substitute for the force of personal contacts with the public. What psychologists *are* and what they represent themselves *to be* constitute the substantive foundation on which all our public relations and public information endeavors must be built.

COMMITTEE ON PUBLIC RELATIONS

C. R. CARPENTER, Chairman
ROGER T. LENNON
EDWARD JOSEPH SHOBEN, JR.

STUDENT REACTIONS TO TOPICS IN GENERAL PSYCHOLOGY

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THE reaction of students to the various topics presented in the general psychology course is a subject of continuing interest to instructors. The rather large number of surveys (e.g., Ruch and Duncan, 5) intended to sample student opinion attests to this, but the results also point up a question which is seldom answered adequately: do the topic titles used in the studies have a meaning that is clear and can be agreed upon? A term such as "personality" may suggest a rather narrow field of inquiry to some students being questioned and may be perceived as almost synonymous with "psychology" by others. Similarly, the instructor reading the surveys is left more or less unsatisfied as to the meanings of both the terms and the results obtained. Often added to this is the lack of specificity as to the dimensions along which student reactions may vary or, when specified, the small number of dimensions used (usually only one or two, with the most popular being "usefulness" or "interest").

This paper outlines a study in which reactions were obtained along five dimensions that appeared relevant to students. The data were collected in a way that would, insofar as possible, keep the meanings of the topics used clear to both students and readers who consult the results.

METHOD

Two hundred students¹ in four general psychology classes were asked to rank 16 topics on five dimensions. The topics used on the ranking sheets were the 16 chapter titles in Ruch's *Psychology and Life* (4), the textbook used in the general psychology course. The topics were listed in random order.

The five dimensions along which the chapters were ranked were Interest, New Information, Organization (preferred order of topics), Ease of Understanding, and Usefulness (in everyday life). These descriptive terms were each followed, on the ranking sheet, by a short statement designed to clarify the dimension intended and the student's

¹ Most of these students were freshmen, but a small number (5-10% of each class) were upperclassmen.

task. Five forms of the sheet, A through E, were used so that each dimension could appear in each position from first to fifth (though, of course, not all possible orders among dimensions were used).

The ranking sheet was filled out by Ss as the first part of their "final examination" in the general psychology course. The remainder of the examination time was devoted to test questions taken from the summary sections of the book's chapters.² The Ss had been told beforehand that the questions would be drawn from the summaries, in order to encourage them to study all the topics and in approximately the same way. The students were also encouraged to refer to the summaries in making their judgments during the time the ranking sheets were being completed.

The directions, in addition to explaining the mechanics of completing the sheet, advised Ss that the purpose of the project was to get their judgments on how to improve the general psychology course, and suggested ways in which their judgments could be made as objectively as possible. The latter included: (a) basing judgments on the topics as covered *in the book*; (b) reading over the entire list of topics before beginning their ranking; (c) not permitting rankings on one dimension to influence rankings on another; (d) trying not to allow material presented *in class*, or the instructor's personality, to influence judgments.

When all topics had been ranked on all dimensions, Ss were asked to indicate the relative importance of the five dimensions themselves (from most to least) in making the material more acceptable to them. Space was allowed for any gratuitous remarks (more for catharsis than analysis). All Ss were given time to complete the sheet before the final examination proper began.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The rankings of each chapter on each separate dimension were added and new ranks assigned on the basis of these totals, so that each chapter was given a rank of from 1 to 16 on each dimension.

² All chapters except Chapter 1 have a summary section.

TABLE 1
STUDENT RANKINGS OF GENERAL PSYCHOLOGY TOPICS ALONG FIVE DIMENSIONS

Chapter Number	Topics (Chapter Titles)	Dimensions				
		Interest	New Information	Organization	Ease of Understanding	Usefulness
1	Psychology as Science	16	9	1	7	16
2	Personality and Individuality	11	6	2	13	12
3	Nature and Nurture	7	11	4	4	11
4	Human Capacities and Abilities	9	8	3	12	9
5	Motivation	5	4	5.5	8	10
6	Emotions: Inner Springs of Action	3	2	5.5	6	6
7	Frustration and Stress	1	3	7	9	5
8	Mental Health and Psychotherapy	10	1	10	16	14
9	The Special Senses	14	13	12	15	15
10	Observation	15	10	11	14	13
11	The Learning Process	12	5	8	11	8
12	Learning and Remembering	6	7	9	5	2
13	Thinking, Communication, and Persuasion	13	12	14	10	7
14	Personal Adjustment Problems in Group Living	2	14	13	1	1
15	Psychology and Work	8	16	16	3	4
16	Psychology and Social Problems	4	15	15	2	3

Table 1 presents these rankings for the 16 topics (listed in the chapter order used in *Psychology and Life*)—it will be recalled that on the actual ranking sheet the topics were in random order and the dimensions were followed by short explanatory statements).

The data were first broken down into five groups, according to the form of the ranking sheet used (A, B, C, D, or E), in order to determine whether there were any notable relationships between the ranks and the order in which the dimensions were presented to *S*. No such relationship appeared. A breakdown into subgroups on the basis of sex and

scholarship (high versus low grades on the final examination and in the course) showed that these variables had little influence upon judgments, which is in line with the results of other studies. Ruch and Duncan (5) and Tussing (6) report that sex is not a factor in determining the interests of students in general psychology; Arnold (1) and Ruch and Duncan (5) report that interest in subject matter is independent of level of scholarship.

A breakdown was made by instructors of the several classes (Klare vs. Pullen), and only very small disagreements in ranks appeared, suggesting that either the topics were received in very much the same way by the two sets of students or that, if different, the differences (as intended) had little influence on judgments. Forms A through E of the sheets were analyzed separately, but the closeness of the various rankings suggested that the data could be lumped. Because the various breakdowns were unproductive of any important changes in relationships, only the overall figures are presented in Table 1.

Rank-order intercorrelations of the judgments on the five dimensions did, however, provide significant relationships. Table 2 presents the correlation coefficients between the ranks on each dimension. The significance of the values is also indicated.

One further coefficient of correlation is of inter-

TABLE 2
INTERCORRELATIONS OF STUDENT RANKINGS
OF GENERAL PSYCHOLOGY TOPICS
ON FIVE DIMENSIONS

	New Information	Organization	Ease of Understanding	Usefulness
Interest	+.24	-.09	+.61*	+.74**
New Information		+.58*	-.44	-.24
Organization			-.22	-.46
Ease of Understanding				.72**

* $p < .05$ ($p_{.05} = .52$; see Guilford, 2, p. 313).

** $p < .01$ ($p_{.01} = .65$; see Guilford, 2, p. 313).

est, that between the rankings made by *Ss* for Organization (preferred order of topics) and the organization followed in *Psychology and Life*. The value is .94 ($p < .01$), which suggests that either *Ss* were rather highly satisfied with the order used in the book or they were unable, perhaps because of lack of sufficient information, to suggest another. A glance at Table 1 indicates (within the limit of the reliability of the judgments) that the students would prefer the material on learning (Chapters 11 and 12) to come before that on mental health, the special senses, and observation (Chapters 8, 9, and 10). The correlation coefficient (Table 2) between Organization and New Information suggests that the students' preferred order of topics is related, to some extent, to the amount of new information presented per chapter. The other significant correlation coefficients are among Interest, Usefulness, and Ease of Understanding—that between interest and usefulness appearing to be in general agreement with Arnold's finding (1) that interest and "value" judgments correlated + .60.

The five dimensions themselves were ranked in importance by *Ss* as follows: 1. Usefulness; 2. Interest; 3. Ease of Understanding; 4. Organization; and 5. New Information. It is rather interesting to note that *Ss*, in judging usefulness to be of great-

est importance, bear out the contentions of Harper and others (3) that students take psychology to understand themselves better. The low rank given the dimension of New Information may or may not surprise the reader.

In conclusion it should be said that, while this study may have advantages in specificity of topic meanings, it has certain concomitant disadvantages in applying directly only to the book used, *Psychology and Life*. It should also be mentioned, however, that a forthcoming edition of another of the most popular psychology texts will have a highly similar chapter organization (if not similar chapter content).

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Comment

Human Engineering

Where and when did the term "human engineering" originate? In his interesting and informative article on automation and related developments (*Amer. Psychologist*, 1956, 11, 531-536), Neil D. Warren suggests that the term was first used as a title for the process of selection, placement, and vocational guidance. This may well be true—I do not know. A certain danger always attaches to any claim of priority, because we can never prove that no earlier instance can be found. It may even turn out that the early Greeks had a word for it or that some forgotten designer of muzzle-loading rifles once made an issue of it.

I should like, however, to call attention to an early use of the term human engineering by Raymond Dodge, who may have been the first professional psychologist to impress the military with the need for the engineering of equipment for human use. While preparing a note on the history of psychology in the National Academy of Sciences (*Amer. Psychologist*, 1952, 7, 119-124), I ran across a statement contributed by Dodge to the NRC report (*Psychol. Rev.*, 1919, 26, 83-149) telling how psychology did its bit in World War I. In his delightful account of his struggles, Dodge complains about "the failure of military traditions to meet the new problems of human engineering which modern warfare occasioned." He goes on to tell how, once the confidence of the military had been won, "their faith in our ability to turn the desired tricks became an embarrassment, and the only limit to service was the limit of human endurance." The modern human engineer knows precisely what Dodge was talking about.

Dodge designed simulators and trainers for gun pointing, selection tests for plotting-room personnel and for underwater listeners, and he made a comprehensive attempt to "human engineer" a sensible, wearable gas mask. This was the man who in more peaceful times had solved the problem of measuring and recording the movements of the eyes. Shrewd and ingenious in analyzing problems and in instrumenting their solutions, Dodge seems to have been, if not the first to use the term, at least one of the first to show what human engineering might amount to.

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Human Engineering Liaison

Recent issues of *Research and Engineering* (November 1956 to February 1957) contain material of vital interest to some psychologists and of general interest

to all psychologists. Historically, the situation developed something like this. In the October 1956 issue of *Mechanical Engineering*, George A. Peters, a psychologist associated with Picatinny Arsenal's Human Engineering Unit, published an article calling for the creation of an interdisciplinary human engineering organization. Peters expressed the view that while the APA's engineering psychology Division 21 could serve the needs of psychologists, and the American Society of Mechanical Engineers' Group on Ergonomics could serve the needs of mechanical engineers, an interdisciplinary group would provide the field with profitable cross-fertilization.

It is anticipated that such an independent organization of the many disciplines engaged in human engineering would cooperate closely with the APA, ASME, IRE, and other existing intra-discipline societies interested in human engineering.

In the November issue of *Research and Engineering*, Melvin Mandell (apparently an engineer) editorially attacked the idea, saying that to set up a discipline named human engineering was to overspecialize and would result in "taking human engineering away from us humans." Peters challenged this attack in a letter to the editor in the December issue of *Research and Engineering*. He said, in effect, that, while human engineering was undoubtedly a specialty, the complexity of society forces us to accept specialization.

Further support for Peter's position was forthcoming in the January issue of *Research and Engineering* in the form of two additional letters to the editor. Also appearing in the January issue was a second editorial. Mandell appears to have backed down somewhat from his original position of violent opposition and now issues a "call to meeting." He proposes that a meeting be held of all interested parties. The purpose of such a meeting would be to do the "much needed job of defining human engineering."

Now, it has always seemed to the writer that the relations between engineering psychologists and the more progressive members of the engineering profession have been extremely amicable. With the older, and more conservative, engineer, the relationship has (at least on the average) borne an analogy to the clinical psychologist-physician relation. Engineering psychologists do not want to destroy their good relations nor do they want to be "phased out" of the human engineering business. Improved relations with all engineers is obviously the solution to this dilemma.

If a meeting such as that recommended by Mandell is ever to be held, psychology can best improve its

relations with the engineering profession by taking the lead in such an endeavor. Particularly, those of us who are primarily psychologists and secondarily "human engineers" should invite our brothers in human engineering from other disciplines with open arms.

By means of aggressive leadership, in both the technical and human relations area, let us at least insure that we do not lose friends. More properly, by these means, let us make many new friends.

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Use of the Sugar Pill by Industrial Psychologists

During the last two national APA conventions, I have become increasingly mindful of the importance and lasting significance of one of the classic contributions made by Donald G. Paterson:

CHARACTER READING AT SIGHT OF MR. X According to the System of Mr. P. T. Barnum

Abilities: Above average in intelligence or mental alertness. Also above average in accuracy—rather painstaking at times. Deserves a reputation for neatness—dislikes turning out sloppy work. Has initiative; that is, ability to make suggestions and to get new ideas, open-mindedness. Emotions: You have a tendency to worry at times but not to excess. You do get depressed at times but you couldn't be called moody because you are generally cheerful and rather optimistic. You have a good disposition although earlier in life you have had a struggle with yourself to control your impulses and temper.

Interests: You are strongly socially inclined, you like to meet people, especially to mix with those you know well. You appreciate art, painting and music, but you will never be a success as an artist or as a creator or composer of music. You like sports and athletic events but devote more of your attention to reading about them in the sporting page than in actual participation.

Ambitions: You are ambitious, and deserve credit for wanting to be well thought of by your family, business associates and friends. These ambitions come out most strongly in your tendency to indulge in day-dreams, in building air-castles, but this does not mean that you fail to get into the game of life actively.

Vocational: You ought to continue to be successful so long as you stay in a social vocation. I mean if you keep at work bringing you in contact with people. Just what work you pick out isn't as important as the fact that it must be work bringing you in touch with people. On the negative side you would never have made a success at strictly theoretical work or in pure research work such as in physics or neurology.

(Reproduced as printed on page 47 of *Counseling and Psychology*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1951.)

Paterson's generalized personality sketch illustrates the "Barnum Effect" in personnel testing and evaluation.

Most individuals, confronted with this description of themselves, readily believe that it sizes them up pretty well. They often wonder how the analyst can do such an accurate and insightful job, and they nearly always will accept such "accuracy" as *prima-facie* evidence of the validity of any of a number of personnel selection and evaluation techniques.

Actually, of course, the sketch cited above does possess a good degree of accuracy; but it is not uniquely accurate for different and specific individuals. Instead, it has a universal appeal; it is accurate for nearly *all* individuals regardless of their origin, race, or creed. Accuracy is achieved by using relatively trivial generalities. Yet, persons, by and large, are sufficiently naive, psychologically and sufficiently self-centered so that they are amazed by the apparent accuracy of the description. In a word, they have the wool pulled over their eyes. Thus the name, Barnum Effect, has been suggested by Meehl to be used in referring to the spurious sense of accuracy often resulting from this kind of anecdotal validation. Obviously, this sort of verification of psychological evidence has little to recommend it. In terms of the techniques used in "selling" the results, the Barnum method must be placed in a category with such arts as palmistry, graphology, tea leaf reading, and astrology.

Still, it is an unfortunate fact that many otherwise hardheaded businessmen are today behaving in a rather gullible fashion. Not a few industrial psychologists, both within firms and acting as consultants, are making heavy use of anecdotal validation in selling their wares to businessmen. In other words, they are widely prescribing methods which upon examination may be found to be similar to the medic's use of sugar pills. Surprisingly, these techniques are currently enjoying a good deal of acceptance. Very likely, however, this acceptance will continue only until such practitioners are asked to produce the evidence.

The analogy, referred to above, between the use of sugar pills and psychological test validation by anecdote deserves further comment. Sugar pills or placebos are, of course, inactive, harmless pills or injections given solely for the psychological effect they may have upon a patient. Placebos are prescribed with full knowledge that they have no effect on the physiological or organic functioning of a person; yet they may have curative values. The psychological effect of receiving medication is potent when it is combined with the patient's respect and awe of the doctor and the belief that the doctor is doing what is best for him. It is widely agreed that from 50 to 70 per cent of the nation's ills may be psychologically determined. Thus, a physician may not be remiss in using the sugar pill to give psychological support to persons suffering from emotionally induced, physical distress. A physician would be

terribly remiss, however, were he to prescribe sugar pills to persons suffering from organically based disorders. The medical fraternity might well frown on such practice; for, in effect, it misrepresents the facts. Such practice holds out to the patient a hope of recovery when, in truth, the sugar coated pill can have no such effect.

This unfounded medical usage of sugar pills is closely analogous to the practice by many industrial psychologists of capitalizing on the Barnum Effect. Consider a simple illustration: In most industrial firms, one of the most pressing personnel problems has to do with selecting and maintaining an effective, hard driving sales force. Ineffective selling and excessive turnover among sales personnel can be extremely costly to a firm. Sales managers and other persons charged with the recruitment and selection of salesmen recognize the significance of this problem. It is common, therefore, for them to seek the help of their firm's industrial psychologist or the aid of a personnel consulting firm in discovering and instituting better methods of selection, placement, and promotion of sales personnel. At this point, it is not uncommon for psychologists to administer batteries of psychological tests from which to prepare personality sketches of various candidates. Final decisions to hire, fire, or promote sales candidates often are based on just such psychological test appraisals and the resultant sketches. Proof of the validity of such a procedure in many instances harkens back to testimonies of the uncanny accuracy of such test-based personality sketches. Obviously, the Barnum Effect may play an important role in creating false impressions of the degree to which tests are accurate and valid. The upshot is that psychological test appraisals are being employed by many currently practicing industrial psychologists as sugar coated pills; they are being used in situations in which there has been failure to demonstrate their true therapeutic value. Further, they are being used often to create a psychological feeling of well-being; yet, in fact, they may have no proven validity for the setting in which they are being employed. In other words, tests (and other sugar pill assessment techniques) are being used with full knowledge that they may *not* really be useful in increasing the overall effectiveness of a firm's program of selection, placement, and promotion of personnel.

Certainly, the methods of objectively validating tests and other appraisal techniques are sufficiently well defined so that subjective impressions of test validity, based as they are on personality sketches, testimonials, and other anecdotal accounts, should merit nothing but the scorn of businessmen. Admittedly, the problems of criterion definition of jobs, particularly at the management level, have been tough. But mere difficulty of adequate technique for validation must not

become the basis for adopting what currently is an "easy out"—the sugar pill assessment technique.

As a matter of fact, it is a common complaint of "sugar pill psychologists" that the problems of test validation are just too tough. They deride the efforts of statistically oriented psychologists to produce evidence of test validity, and they point mockingly to the "simple minded folly" of attempting to reduce such a personal and warm thing as the function of business management to the cold and scrutinizing gaze of persons bent on *measurement*. They continue to rely heavily on the Barnum Effect in gaining acceptance of their wares; the cordial smile and warm handshake are about as important, it seems, as nearly any other single item in the kit of many present day industrial psychologists. Yet, these same psychologists are characterized by complete naiveté when asked to evaluate their program. They can only harken back to the "acceptance" they have gained in the eyes of management; they can offer little or no objective evidence that their inferences and predictions are accurately describing meaningful aspects of on-the-job management behavior. This attitude has been described as an anticriterion bias.

It is my contention that such a position is not tenable nor even rationalizable. Psychological research in widely separated settings has begun to point the way toward new methods allowing more objective analysis and description of jobs and more rigorous "clinical" analysis and validation of tests and other assessment devices.

It is necessary, for the good of industrial psychology, that the Barnum Effect be discredited as a method for the validation of psychological tests. Businessmen, as they become aware of its nature and obvious limitations, should demand sophisticated methods of test validation. In order to avoid ills resulting from the "quick cure," businessmen should, at the same time, exercise a degree of patience in their demand for the services of psychologists. It should be up to businessmen to seek objective validity which goes far beyond mere anecdotal accounts. Decisions based on psychological tests should be delayed until good evidence of the tests' validity is presented. At the same time, it is the ethical duty of industrial psychologists to resist the temptation to use tests which have not been properly validated. It is their duty to educate the persons for whom they perform services; further, it is their duty to create and maintain an atmosphere conducive to test research and validation. In many cases, they will need to "unsell" more persons on testing than they will be called upon to sell, and they will need to caution their clients concerning the many qualifications to be attached to test interpretations.

The psychologist who adopts such an approach and who retains a research mindedness in his efforts to

wisely validate his tests may be excused for an occasional lapse in response to pressure and the demands of expediency. For when the pressure is eased, he will redouble his efforts to validate his tests and to further specify the conditions and limitations of their use. Businessmen obviously need to be aware of methods of appropriate psychological test validation. By demanding a high level of competency from industrial and consulting psychologists, American business will render unprofitable the currently widespread use of questionable and often misguided psychological test appraisals.

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Applied Research: Variations on a Theme

My brief comments stem from a growing sense of frustration. Simply stated, I am having a tough time getting research and the market place together. Stated otherwise, can research be used to solve practical problems? Whether these difficulties stem from the nature of the things or from my own inadequacies, I, of course, cannot judge. I can say this for these impressions. They are not born from virgin logic but from some 12 years of trying to apply research to man in action.

We can perhaps best proceed by example. Research in an operational context classically begins with someone else's problem. For our purposes, let us assume that High Rank X has said in memo form or in a cocktail conversation: "I think something ought to be done about the number of targets being missed by our radarscope monitors after they've been at it for a good while." The problem could just as readily be: "I want such and such a product to sell well," or "I want to cut down the labor turnover rate in such and such a department."

Now here are two initial difficulties: (a) It is not your problem but his, and you and your staff may have only limited competence or interest in the problem. (b) The problem is vaguely stated and probably far more complex than he thinks it is, and he expects a quick and simple answer.

Now let's jump a number of steps: the trying to find out if the problem is real, the rewordings required, the sorting of the wheat from the chaff, the approval required, the equipment estimates and budget jugglings. Your problem now is where are the answers to come from. Generally, there are two classical directions: to go to the laboratory (or to laboratory findings previously obtained) or to dive into the situation. Either direction has its benefits and its problems.

First the laboratory: If you conduct your own experiments or you survey the mass of material accumulated in the laboratory on fatigue, you will find the following: (a) immaculately controlled and hence unequivocally firm results stated in quite general terms; (b) the findings appropriate to college sophomores, rats, or eighth-grade children—in sound proof rooms or with pure tone intermittently introduced at 7-minute intervals—on punching holes in paper, or pressing the buzzer at 9-minute intervals, or being tested on reciting numbers backward, or spontaneity on Rorschach card six; (c) the findings have limited appropriateness to airmen in aircraft watching a radarscope. In brief you will find broad generalizations drawn from highly specific conditions which will hold true if controls may be introduced to meet those highly specific conditions—which they can't.

If, on the other hand, you conduct your own experiments in context, i.e., you take measurements on radar operator performance under the highly fluid situation of let us say an aircraft in flight on a 12-hour mission, you further introduce a monitoring routine on a drug, and you note an improvement, what then? (a) Your results will be clearly potent, that is, you have increased the proficiency of radar operators in the particular situation. (b) The type of aircraft, its radarscope, and its mission become obsolete two months later; and since the monitoring technique you used had been pretty much up to the operators, you weren't sure that they were really doing what you told them to do and, after all, the results may have been due to abnormally good weather conditions during the experiment. Besides you heard that they had tried something like this up at New London, and it hadn't worked at all. In short, you aren't sure where the effect you obtained in the operational context came from, and the conditions were so complex that you couldn't really describe them.

Because of space limitations, I shall not try to trace the process from this point to its actual utilization. Suffice to say from this point, research too often finds itself cringing from abuse by overuse or sadly crying in the wilderness, "I know this is true, won't somebody do something about it?"

I have dug a hole both deep and wide and, to mix my metaphors, one may expect that I am ready to run up a white flag. Not yet. I know that situationally centered research is paying off, that it is making changes even if only temporary. For example, such work in aviation is saving millions of dollars and many lives. I know that the results in the long run are far more effective than the arrogant educated guess. On the other hand, I know that the laboratory is developing basic knowledges which day-to-day are making our tasks easier in viewing this world, are winnowing the relevant variables from the irrelevant which permits

us to look more clearly, are developing methodologies that we would be lost without.

I would contend, however, that we have a problem. In the past we have solved our problems by research. A program of research on research translations is called for. I contend that too much of our research falls on rocky ground to spring up importantly but die quickly, or among thorns to be choked out by irrelevancies, or on barren ground and is for the birds. In the absence of a systematic analysis of this particular problem, we will continue to waste much of our valuable research talent which will blush unseen in desert air.

WILSE B. WEBB
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Another Course in Human Engineering

We at the University of Detroit agree basically with the notions expressed by Coyer, in his article on a human engineering course (*Amer. Psychologist*, 1956, 11, 241-243). Certainly our courses in industrial psychology did not fulfill the need for more specifically trained persons in this area of psychology. Thus, we offered, during the second semester of the 1955-56 year, a course called, Applied Experimental Psychology. The course was given at the advanced undergraduate level with the option of additional requirements for graduate credit. It was our hope that the college of engineering would be interested. The ultimate population of the class consisted of seven seniors majoring in psychology, one graduate student in psychology, and one graduate engineer.

Essentially, our course was similar to that given at St. Lawrence University. We used the same text and basic references and also assigned a major project as well as minor papers. The syllabus included orientation to the field, a review of psychophysical methods and research design, and a series of "basic" problems in human engineering. The latter were broken down into problems of display, control, apparatus appraisal, apparatus design, work arrangement, systems design, and work environment. As a terminal project, the class visited the University of Detroit studios of WTVS-TV, heard a lecture and saw demonstration on apparatus and procedures, and finally visited the control room to observe the telecast of one or more programs. The assignment was an appraisal of the equipment and a new control room design.

One of our outstanding findings was the extreme enthusiasm of the students for the area. They seemed to appreciate both the need for people trained in this field as well as its great potential. A new awareness of the presence of psychological phenomena in everyday tools and gadgets presented itself to them.

What were some of the difficulties which we encountered? First of all, there seemed to be a lack of facility in the students for translating standard psychophysical methods to the specific human engineering problems. Secondly, the basic statistical knowledge of the students did not seem ample. Third, the broad range of student backgrounds (both psychological knowledge and mechanical knowledge) presented difficulties in terms of what one might assume as prior knowledge. Finally, there was the inevitable problem of too much material for the time available. The solutions to these problems are rather obvious. However, practical limitations within each school will restrict the possible solutions.

It occurs to us that courses such as these should be of at least two semesters duration: (a) general indoctrination and methods, (b) technical practicum. The course, as we gave it, was not clearly one or the other. As a general indoctrination, there was too much detail and specificity of problems. On the other hand, while the students did some practical quasi-studies, they are hardly qualified to proceed on their own as engineering psychologists.

The structure of the first course could be such that the typical undergraduate in psychology, business management, or industrial relations would benefit from the general concepts presented. Too, this part of the total course would help the engineering student, as well as the graduate engineer, in his future relationships with psychologists in industry.

The second course (which could be at the graduate level) would be designed primarily for the student in psychology who will work in the area of human engineering. It would be devoted to practical applications conducted under close scrutiny of the instructor. The class work could be seminars on the statement, suggested solutions, and findings relating to specific assignments. In this work, it might be feasible to enlist the cooperation of local business and industry in providing situations in which directed students might apply their training for the mutual benefit of the students and the donor of the facilities. Finally, this field work would make it possible to disseminate the concepts of human engineering and their potential to nonmilitary people who may not as yet appreciate what human engineering has to offer.

HERBERT J. BAUER
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Psychology Course in High School

Engle and Bunch (*Amer. Psychologist*, 1956, 11, 188-193) indicate that the teaching of psychology at the high school level is increasing. Questionnaires recently submitted to teachers, principals, and pupils re-

veal more favorable attitudes toward the teaching of psychology in high schools than was the case a number of years ago. Implicit in the Engle and Bunch statement is a certain measure of gratification with recent developments in this sphere. A sobering note appears, however, in a letter by Engle (*Amer. Psychologist*, 1956, 11, 206) in which the APA contacts of secondary school psychology teachers are cited. Engle concludes his letter by urging that some form of APA affiliation be established for high school teachers of psychology. This writer believes that the qualification of the teacher is secondary to the more basic question of whether *the teaching of psychology at the secondary school level is in the best interests of the intellectual development of the college preparatory student*. It is the contention of this writer that psychology can be fitted into the secondary school curriculum only at the sacrifice of more basic disciplines.

Let us briefly examine the curriculum of a better-than-average three-year senior high school. Three years of English are generally required. A three-year history sequence of ancient, European, and American history is customary. At the very minimum, three years of a foreign language are essential if the student is to gain adequate facility in composition, conversation, and an awareness of literary values in that language. The study of intermediate and advanced algebra, plane and solid geometry, and trigonometry will generally extend over a three-year period. Finally, the physical sciences (biology, physics, and chemistry) in successive years will fill out the student's program.

The introduction of psychology into this curriculum can only mean that the student will be forced to postpone secondary school work until he enrolls in college or that he will simply pass up one of the more basic courses. In respect to the former, many colleges are already forced to offer beginner's courses in a number of these fields to make up for the impoverished education of many high school graduates.

While there is nothing sacred about the traditional secondary school curriculum, the fact remains that this core curriculum is more than an accidental accretion of isolated courses. The five areas listed above represent a bedrock upon which subsequent college-level study can build. The study of psychology as a science follows naturally upon the acquisition of a working knowledge of several of the basic disciplines.

In particular, courses in experimental and physiological psychology can most profitably be pursued after the completion of courses in physics, chemistry, and biology. A psychology course emphasizing the behavior of contemporary man in society or interrelationships among personality, society, and culture will be more highly appreciated by students endowed with an historical perspective gained from a study of American and

European history. Certainly, one can hardly take issue with a time sequence in which history precedes contemporary man and his institutions. A reasonable grasp of basic mathematics courses should make for a more sympathetic attitude toward the study of quantitative methods in psychology and a possible drift away from the cookbook approach.

If we are interested in getting the intellectually superior student to major in psychology, the introduction of "life adjustment" and "personal problems" courses at the high school level (irrespective of the APA status of the teacher) can only subvert that goal. The scientifically minded student is quite capable of making invidious comparisons between the systematic rigor of the natural sciences and mathematics, on the one hand, and the homespun generalities of a "popular periodical" psychology course, on the other.

The writer will confess that the present argument is specifically concerned with the intellectually able student who will proceed to college. The large number of pupils whose formal education will not extend beyond the twelfth grade of high school can profitably substitute a "mental hygiene" or "personal adjustment" course for one of the basic disciplines in the core curriculum. Where college preparatory studies are involved, however, the attempt to inject psychology into the traditional high school curriculum will in the long run redound to the disadvantage of psychology. It is in the best interest of psychology as well as the other sciences and professions that the strength of the traditional secondary school curriculum be preserved. In this way, we are likely to achieve the most desirable balance between general education and specialization.

NATHAN KOGAN
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Psychological Examiners in Public Schools

In the fall of 1953, inquiries were addressed to school systems in the northeastern U.S. regarding the number of school psychologists, clinical psychologists, psychological examiners, psychometrists, and psychoeducational examiners employed and the number of pupils enrolled in the schools at the time. In the replies received, the ratio of examiners to number of pupils ranged all the way from 1 psychological examiner per 2,700 pupils to 1 per 15,600. These figures, however, did not include large staffs of counselors or guidance teachers in the individual schools, many of whom were using psychological testing techniques without much training in psychology. The ratio of psychological examiners in residential institutions for mentally deficient and retarded children is much larger. Berger and Waters (*Amer. J. ment. Defic.*, 1956, 60, 824), for example, found a median ratio of 1 per 700 in 55 state insti-

tutions and 1 per 41.2 in 14 private institutions. Of course, the relative number of children actually examined in an institution for the mentally handicapped is much greater than in a public school system.

What constitutes a reasonable ratio and a reasonable work load for the psychological examiner in a public school system? The answer depends on the nature of the duties of the examiner and the efficiency standards established and enforced by the agency concerned.

According to information from the Thayer Conference (*School psychologists at mid-century*. Washington: APA, 1955), the Connecticut Advisory Pupil Personnel Committee's recommendation is 1 psychological examiner per 2,000 pupils; the Bureau of Child Guidance in New York City recommends 1 for not over 2,500 pupils. The Thayer Conference, recognizing the complexities and complications involved, agreed that it is not "wise at present to state a desirable case load for those working individually with children." Nevertheless, it held that a "school population of 800 to 1,000 can profitably use the services of a full-time school psychologist."

Emphasis nowadays is placed on psychotherapy as a vital function of the school psychological examiner. In my judgment, no one should spend school time on depth therapy who is not thoroughly grounded in the intricacies of psychotherapeutic techniques and psychopathology—and perhaps not even then. In large school systems at least, a differentiation of function among the school psychologists should obtain: the trained clinician devoting full time to the mentally and educationally retarded; the psychometrician to the intellectual and educational development of all the pupils. To expect school psychological examiners to function as experts in all areas without specific training is like expecting general practitioners in medicine to handle psychotics without any training in psychiatry and psychopathology. In the opinion of the writer, let psychotherapy be the application of the best principles of mental hygiene and educational psychology to the processes and procedures of the school.

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Let's Get into Adult Education

We gathered the adult education programs from all the colleges and universities in the domain of the Eastern Psychological Association. We found that very little was being done by psychologists in the adult education area. Our findings compared favorably with those obtained in the nationwide survey of seventy-six institutions, thirty-nine of which offered extension courses (Morton, J. R. *University extension in the U. S.* Birmingham, Alabama: Univer. of Alabama Press,

1953). These thirty-nine institutions offered 160 courses in English, 150 in art, 124 in music, and 112 in speech and drama, as compared to 15 in psychology. The results of our survey confirm the same astonishing contrast between the number of courses given in psychology and in other subjects. In many fields, adult educators appear to be scrutinizing the needs of their communities and offering courses to meet these. But the discipline of psychology does not seem to be responding in similar fashion. A few courses with psychological titles appear in home economics or industrial business offerings, but not many under departments of psychology.

Public education in physical hygiene has improved the health of our citizens. Why do we balk at offering this public education in psychology? The public is constantly being fed ideas along these lines from the press and the air, but often they are unsound ones. We who have more understanding of human relations and personality dynamics should do something better than default to charlatans.

Increased adult education in psychology would serve at least two ends. Students could be helped to realize that people have different patterns of growth and different concepts of self, and they could be led to develop an appreciation of the dynamics behind different attitudes and behaviors. Secondly, the development of adult education programs in psychology would be of value to the profession itself. It would make the average citizen more aware of what psychology really is. It would inform individuals about professionally competent personnel available for help in the community, should a need arise.

So, if we are not going to "leave it to George" but prefer to grapple with our problem by our own devices, let's supplement and improve the existing programs. Let's launch more effective courses in human behavior, mental hygiene, child psychology, problems of adolescents, personality adjustment, anxiety and how to deal with it—Let's get off the sidelines and into adult education.

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University College, Rutgers University
VIRGINIA M. STAUDT
Hunter College

Double-Choice Examination Questions

A good many psychologists spend, altogether, an enormous amount of time each year in the construction of objective, multiple-choice examinations; and when the examinations finally confront the recipient students, the latter almost always complain more or less bitterly about having to take "that kind of test." It is the

purpose of the present comment to suggest at least a partial remedy for this unhappy situation.

The remedy is a simple one, and it has been used by the writer with apparent success for the past two academic years. What has been done is merely to reduce the number of alternatives in each multiple-choice question to the minimum, namely two. This makes a "double-choice" question in which one alternative is right and the other wrong. Although it takes more double-choice than multiple-choice questions to make up an adequate test on a given body of material, the briefer items are so much easier to write that the labor of test construction is, if anything, lightened. Students have shown distinct acceptance; the double-choice format evidently faces them with a decision which they regard as being, if not pleasant, at least fair. Finally, as judged from several studies with typical classes, the odd-even reliability of a semester's series of double-choice items can be expected to run in the neighborhood of .80-.90—this figure seems acceptable.

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Outside Readings

As part of a program for making introductory psychology courses more challenging, we have given increasing attention to the use of "outside readings." One might speculate that this course is viewed by many students as an endless sequence of "facts" because all the popular texts for the course are very much content oriented and are attempting to present in one volume all the primary findings in the field. We would hold that, to create a feeling of excitement about the problems of our science above and beyond the sequence-of-facts level, readings from outside primary sources are important. Needless to say, we have been pleased to observe the growing list of books of readings available as economical sources for reading assignments. This kind of publication is to be encouraged.

Consideration of the average introductory student's point of view with regard to reading materials, however, indicates that the attractiveness and interest value of many reading materials available in familiar collections can easily be overrated by instructors who are, after all, already "sold" on psychology. Even a factor such as quality of expression plays a part in determining student reaction, and their commentary indicates that many frequently used materials leave a lot to be desired with regard to the matter of good writing. Again, the professional who knows the jargon and is interested in content is not likely to give much weight to this consideration.

To this end, we would like to indicate our experience with a source of readings which is apparently not widely used and present information about a publishing program which may make these materials more widely available. For several years past, the *Scientific American*, through an editorial policy which attempts to present scientific materials from many fields to an intelligent lay audience, has been publishing some genuinely stimulating articles dealing with important discoveries in psychology. These particular articles, written by important men in the field, are for us a perfect answer to the problem of finding reading materials which dramatically suggest scientific adventure with expression of uniformly high quality.

The obvious drawback with these articles is that they are spread through many volumes of the magazine and therefore present difficulties from the point of view of the economics of student effort. A first answer to this matter of availability came with the publication of *The Scientific American Reader* by Simon and Schuster in 1954. This volume, however, contains a cross section of articles and does not provide a representative or comprehensive sampling of psychological materials. In a continuing program to reprint articles from *Scientific American*, Simon and Schuster have recently published five paper-backed books, each of which deals with a particular science area. No one of these has a central psychological theme, but there has been some indication that the publishers intend to expand this series. It may be that they have already formulated a plan to gather articles of a psychological nature into one such volume at least. In any case, we would like to commend the general program and express the hope that a cross section of psychological articles will appear in this format. We think it would be a most valuable "reader" for our introductory course purposes. Can united interest in such a venture hasten it along?

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RUSSELL BECKER
College of Wooster

The Drop in Undergraduate Degrees

The figures in Table 1, taken from the *Statistical Abstracts of the United States* for the appropriate years, point up a situation of which too many psychologists may not be aware. What is the complete answer which will account for the drop in undergraduate degrees from 1950 to 1954? Suggested explanations: (a) Uncertainty on the part of psychologists as to whether specialized undergraduate training is the best kind of preparation for advanced study and careers in psychology. (b) Reduced need for the therapeutic values of undergraduate psychology in less troubled years.

TABLE 1
NUMBER OF DEGREES AWARDED IN PSYCHOLOGY

	Bachelor			Master			Doctor		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
1949	8205	4591	3614	1455	889	566	201	167	34
1950	9582	6058	3524	1316	948	368	283	241	42
1951	7819	4836	2983	1645	1250	395	425	368	57
1952	6622	3783	2839	1406	1066	340	540	467	73
1953	5946	3330	2616	1161	896	265	583	504	79
1954	5758	3085	2673	1254	885	369	619	553	66

I am not convinced that these exhaust all possible explanations.

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Doctoral Dissertations
by Women in the Nineteenth Century

The first PhDs earned in an American university were conferred on three men at Yale University in 1861. The first doctorate earned by a woman was conferred by Boston University in 1877. Since 1861, more than 130,000 doctorates have been conferred in the United States, over 15,000 of them on women (*American Universities and Colleges*, 1956, pp. 65-80). Records regarding these women, particularly prior to 1901, are very incomplete and inaccurate in the published reports of the U. S. Commissioner of Education. Considerable information concerning 228 of them who earned their doctorates during the nineteenth century was collected by the writer (*Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, 1956, 42, 644-651).

Of the entire group of 228, at least 20 wrote dissertations in the field of psychology. Fifteen of these secured the PhD, the other five being awarded the degree of Doctor of Pedagogy (analogous to the modern degree of EdD). Of this group of 20 doctorates: Cornell University and New York University each conferred five; University of Chicago, three; University of Pennsylvania and Yale University, two each; and University of Michigan, University of Minnesota, and University of Wooster (now College of Wooster), one each.

The earliest of the dissertations in this group was written by Eliza Ritchie at Cornell University in 1889. One or more dissertations were accepted every year from 1891 to 1900 (except in 1893), the largest number being five in 1898. The names of the 20 women who secured doctor's degrees in psychology, the institution and year of their degrees, the titles of their dissertations, and all available information on publication are given below. This historical information may be of some in-

terest to those engaged today in the teaching of psychology and in the direction of psychological research in American universities and colleges.

GERTRUDE BUCK. PhD, University of Michigan, 1898. "The Metaphor." Published as, *The metaphor: A study in the psychology of rhetoric*. (Contributions to rhetorical theory, No. 5) Ann Arbor, Michigan: The Inland Press, 1899.

EMILY IDA CONANT. PedD, New York University, 1891. "The Relation of Psychology to Pedagogy."

JANE CONNELL. PedD, New York University, 1898. "A Study of Children's Interests in Fairy Tales."

GERTRUDE MARGUERITE EDMUND. PedD, New York University, 1892. "A Course of Study Arranged According to the Accepted Principles of the Science of Method, Principles of Psychology, History of Education, and Experience of Our Times." (Dr. Edmund also secured the PhD degree from New York University in 1919 with the dissertation, "The Higher Education of Women in the United States up to 1870.")

ELEANOR ACHESON McCULLOUGH GAMBLE. PhD, Cornell University, 1898. "The Applicability of Weber's Law to Smell." *Amer. J. Psychol.*, 1898, 10, 82-142. Also reprinted at Worcester, Massachusetts, 1898.

ALICE JULIA HAMILIN. PhD, Cornell University, 1896. "Attention and Distraction." *Amer. J. Psychol.*, 1896, 8, 3-66. Also reprinted at Worcester, Massachusetts, 1896.

CLARA MARIA HITCHCOCK. PhD, Yale University, 1900. "Expectation: Its Nature and Influence upon Knowledge." *Psychol. Rev. Monogr. Suppl.*, 1903, 5, No. 3 (Whole No. 20). Also published as, *The psychology of expectation*. New York: Macmillan, 1904.

ROSE M. LOTHROP. PedD, New York University, 1897. "Physiological and Psychological Tests in the Training School."

ANNA JANE MCKEAG. PhD, University of Pennsylvania, 1900. "The Sensation of Pain." Published as, *The sensation of pain and the theory of the specific sense energies*. (Experimental studies in psychology and pedagogy, No. 2) Boston: Ginn & Co., 1902.

KATHLEEN CARTER MOORE. PhD, University of Pennsylvania, 1898. "The Mental Development of a Child." *Psychol. Rev. Monogr. Suppl.*, 1896, 1, No. 3. Also reprinted at New York and London: Macmillan Co., 1896.

ALICE J. MOTT. PhD, University of Minnesota, 1899. "The Ninth Year of a Deaf Child's Life." Faribault, Minnesota: Press of the Faribault Republican, 1900.

HANNAH E. NEWMAN. PedD, New York University, 1894. "Reflex Action and the Meaning for Will Development."

ELIZA RITCHIE. PhD, Cornell University, 1889. "The Problem of Personality." Ithaca, New York: Andrus & Church, 1889.

STELLA EMILY SHARP. PhD, Cornell University, 1898. "Individual Psychology." Published as, *Individual psychology: A study in psychological method*. *Amer. J. Psychol.*, 1899, 10, No. 3. Also reprinted at Worcester, Massachusetts, 1899.

THEODATE LOUISE SMITH. PhD, Yale University, 1896. "The Motor Element in Memory."

ALMA WILLIS SYDENSTRICKER. PhD, University of Wooster (now College of Wooster), 1895. "The Power of Expression: A Psychological and Ethical Study." *Postgraduate and Wooster Quarterly*, 1895.

AMY ELIZABETH TANNER. PhD, University of Chicago, 1898. "Imagery, with Special Reference to the Association of Ideas." Published as, *Association of Ideas: A preliminary study*. *Univer. Chicago Contr. Phil.*, 1900, 2, No. 3.

HELEN BRADFORD THOMPSON. PhD, University of Chicago, 1900. "Psychological Norms for Men and Women." Chicago: Univer. of Chicago Press, 1903. Also published in *Univer. Chicago Contr. Phil.*, 1903, 4, No. 1. Also published as, *The mental traits of sex: An experimental investigation of the normal mind in men and women*. Chicago: Univer. of Chicago Press, 1903.

MARGARET FLOY WASHBURN. PhD, Cornell University, 1894. "The Influence of Visual Associations in the Investigation of Tactile Space." Published as, *Über den Einfluss von Gesichtsassociationen auf die Raumwahrnehmungen der Haut* (Erweiterter Abdruck aus Wundt, *Philosoph. Studien*, 11, No. 2, 190-225). Leipzig, Germany: W. Englemann, 1895.

JEANNETTE CORA WELCH. PhD, University of Chicago, 1897. "On the Measurement of Mental Activity through Muscular Activity." *Amer. J. Physiol.*, 1898, 1, 283-306. Also reprinted at Chicago: Univer. of Chicago Press, 1901.

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Discrimination Against Women

Recently, I received a reply to a job application which informed me that I was being dropped from consideration, not because of any lack of qualifications, but simply because I am a woman. "Please do not conclude," the letter continued, "that we are opposed to women; as a matter of fact, I have three excellent women on the staff now, and it is because of this fact that I think a suitable balance in the sex of our staff should be maintained. . . ." The author's candor is admirable, and at first blush his position seems reasonable. On the other hand, has any department chairman turned away a male applicant on the ground that there are already too many men in the department? The implication is clear: there are quotas on the number of women who may be hired to academic positions. Like most quotas, these are nowhere publicly announced or officially admitted. And like most quotas, they reflect discrimination against a minority or underprivileged group—a discrimination whose ultimate consequence is to ensure that the group in question remains underprivileged. Has anyone ever heard of a quota anywhere in the American system of higher education on white Anglo-Saxons or on Presbyterians? There are, it seems, never too many white Anglo-Saxons or too many Presbyterians—or too many men.

The suggestion that most institutions of higher learning (with the possible exception of women's colleges) discriminate against the hiring of women comes as a surprise to no one. We are all aware of it. I, for one, have encountered it time after time, usually in a much more deviously implied form. Nor does the operation of discriminatory practices start when a new PhD begins applying for an academic job; it is in full force in graduate school. A survey of the *American Psychologist* listings of financial assistance available to graduate students in 1956 gives little indication that women will have greater difficulty in obtaining admission or financial assistance; but the statement in the announcement of the graduate department of psychology at Lehigh University, "Women are admitted to graduate study on the same basis as men and are given equal consideration in the awarding of assistantships and scholarships," suggests that this state of affairs does not universally prevail.

The price of any system of discrimination is high in many ways. First of all, it impoverishes psychology to the extent that it excludes many talented and competent people who might otherwise contribute to the field. And the field is not so far advanced that it can afford to decline these potential contributions. Secondly, the cost is high in individual terms. No one aware that he or she is being judged not as an individual but as a member of a minority can work at peak efficiency. The responsibility imposes a tension and a cautious overcarefulness which are often incompatible with free expression and creative thinking. Nor are the associates of such a person ever completely at ease. The third, and most serious cost, is also the most difficult to assess. Moreover, I am enough of an idealist to believe that that which is wrong in principle should not be condemned on grounds of mere practical considerations. And I think all of us would agree that discrimination on the basis of sex—or of creed, color, or country of national origin—is wrong in principle. Recently, academic psychologists have shown greater temerity in making loud (well, pretty loud) liberal statements in support of academic freedom, desegregation, etc. I agree that it is our responsibility to do so. But the preaching of lofty ideals imposes the obligation of practicing them. Any betrayal of principle ultimately compromises the integrity of the betraying individual; and the integrity of the scientist, the integrity of the teacher, are too fundamental to be so thoughtlessly endangered.

This letter has not been written as an epistle to the hypocrites. Rather, I feel that, as in other instances where ethical standards have been in question, this is a problem for the APA. It would seem in order to gather data on the extent to which discrimination is practiced—perhaps not only against women but also

against other groups—with the view toward a statement of policy by the association as a whole.

EDITH D. NEIMARK
Goucher College

Criteria of Adjustment

Research on counseling is impeded by the difficulty of formulating acceptable criteria for determining whether or not we have achieved our purposes. Many of us seek to improve the clients' "adjustment," but we do not always agree on what adjustment is. While we may never succeed in identifying every facet of every variable that might be considered a part of adjustment, perhaps we can identify some of the basic components and use them both as immediate criteria and as leads to the more adequate definition of adjustment. This brief comment is offered as a start in this direction.

I venture to suggest that the ultimate criterion of adjustment is survival. The extinct species can hardly be considered well adjusted in today's world. The extinct individual may have sacrificed himself to the preservation of his species and thus have contributed to its adjustment; but whether or not he himself may be considered well adjusted will probably remain forever a matter of debate. Anything which impairs the ability of the individual *and* the species to survive is evidence of maladjustment. In this category we may place physical or mental illness which threatens the physical survival of the organism and the ability to provide oneself and one's dependents with the food, clothing, shelter, and other essentials of physical survival.

Two usable criteria of adjustment became immediately apparent: health and earnings. Medical science can perhaps help us to measure health. Net income is fairly easy to measure but has obvious limitations as a criterion.

The man who earns \$10,000 a year is not necessarily better adjusted than the man who earns \$9,000. But he is certainly better equipped to survive than the man who is out of a job and whose unemployment insurance has expired. Inability to provide adequate food and medical care presents an immediate threat to survival. Ergo, if we can distinguish even crudely between the man who can support himself and his family, and the man who cannot, we can identify one essential criterion of adjustment.

A related criterion is the percentage of time one is employed or unemployed. In some respects this is less useful than earnings, in some respects more so. A careful planner can allocate an irregular income so that it meets all his needs. Most persons, especially in the lower income brackets, either cannot or will not do this. For them, regularity of employment is closely

related to the way they eat and to the medical care they get. For them, regularity of employment may have more effect on survival than the size of the income.

After survival, we all seek to satisfy our other needs and wants. Identifying and defining these, and learning to measure the degree of their satisfaction, will keep us busy for a long time. Meanwhile, I suggest two areas of major importance for immediate consideration.

No one needs to convince a psychologist that human relations affect human happiness. We have as yet no precise measurements of the quality of human relations nor of the degree of satisfaction that we may find in them. We can, however, make some crude distinctions between the person who is obviously unhappy and knows it, and the person whose behavior confirms his own statement that he finds great satisfaction in his relations with others. If we start with these rough differences, we may move toward more refined measures.

Most of us spend more hours at work than we spend in any other single activity. Job satisfaction is thus an important aspect of total adjustment. It can also be measured only crudely, but we have made a little progress toward refining our instruments.

Here then are five criteria of adjustment with which we can start; health, earnings, percentage of time unemployed, satisfaction in human relations, job satisfaction. Three of the five are related to work, which doubtless reflects the interests of the writer. If the reader who disagrees, or who thinks of other criteria, will put his thoughts in writing, perhaps we shall help each other to progress in thinking our way toward acceptable criteria of effective adjustment.

ROBERT HOPPOCK
New York University

Psychologists in Public Service and How They Grew

Recently, in doing some work for Division 18, Psychologists in Public Service, I made a survey of the primary employment of APA members as reported in APA directories from 1939 through 1955. I checked the employment of every APA member listed on each tenth page of the directory until 10% of the total membership for the year were surveyed. Table 1 is self-explanatory. The outstanding finding is that, while APA membership increased some 530% during the 16-year span, the number of psychologists employed by governmental agencies increased 1150% whereas the number employed by publicly supported colleges and universities increased only 330%.

Wolfe (*Amer. Psychologist*, 1955, 10, 231-237) feels that only 50% or less of those doing psychological work are members of APA. Wolfe also pointed out that academic psychologists are more likely to be members of APA than nonacademic psychologists, and

TABLE 1
PSYCHOLOGISTS IN PUBLIC SERVICE 1939-1955

APA Membership Affiliations Reviewed	1939		1941		1948		1949		1951		1953		1955	
	2,527 253		2,937 294		5,047 505		6,735 674		8,554 855		10,903 1,090		13,475 1,348	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Federal														
VA														
Clin. & Coun.	0	—	0	—	20	4.0	18	2.7	29	3.4	46	4.2	66	4.9
Trainees	0	—	0	—	4	0.8	14	2.1	16	1.8	17	1.6	14	1.0
Other	0	—	0	—	12	2.4	20	3.0	8	1.0	7	0.6	8	0.6
Total VA	0	—	0	—	36	7.1	52	7.7	53	6.2	70	6.4	88	6.5
Defense														
Civilian	0	—	0	—	10	2.0	16	2.4	34	4.0	71	6.5	80	6.1
Military	0	—	0	—	2	0.4	6	0.9	3	0.3	13	1.2	14	1.0
Total Defense	0	—	0	—	12	2.4	22	3.3	37	4.3	84	7.7	95	7.0
Other	2	0.4	5	1.7	6	1.2	13	1.9	7	0.8	11	1.0	14	1.0
Total Federal	2	0.4	5	1.7	54	10.7	87	12.9	97	11.3	165	15.1	197	14.5
State														
Hospitals	7	2.8	8	2.7	9	1.8	19	2.8	23	2.7	49	4.5	71	5.3
Prisons	3	1.2	2	0.3	4	0.8	3	0.4	2	0.2	2	0.2	7	0.5
Other	5	2.0	7	2.4	10	2.0	10	1.5	10	1.2	11	1.0	21	1.6
Total State	15	5.9	17	5.8	32	4.7	32	4.7	35	4.0	62	5.7	99	7.4
City & County														
School	13	5.1	25	8.5	17	3.4	34	5.0	40	4.7	49	4.5	113	8.4
Other	9	3.6	12	4.1	13	2.6	16	2.4	19	2.2	35	3.2	41	3.0
Total City & County	22	8.7	37	12.6	30	5.9	50	7.4	56	6.9	84	7.7	154	11.4
Total	39	15.4	59	20.1	107	21.2	169	25.1	191	22.3	311	28.5	450	33.3
State & City Colleges & Univ.	59	23.3	74	25.6	99	19.6	134	19.9	139	16.6	194	17.7	290	14.8
GRAND TOTAL	98	38.7	133	45.7	206	40.8	303	45.0	330	38.9	505	46.2	650	48.2

governmental agencies employ few, if any, academic psychologists. It is quite likely that, among the civil service examiners, personnel officers, rehabilitation workers, employment service personnel, and researchers in psychological problems, there are many who do work of a psychological nature but do not call themselves psychologists. In this tabulation, it should be noted, all APA members working for governmental agencies are included, whether or not employed as psychologists or in psychological work.

The results presented in Table 1 are fairly consistent with other published reports. The VA (*Amer. Psychologist*, 1955, 10, 101-105) reported 584 clinical and counseling psychologists as of January 1, 1955; Table 1 indicates 660. Jansen (*Amer. Psychologist*, 1955, 10, 210-211) found that 126 psychologists in

uniform were members of APA as of June 30, 1953; Table 1 indicates 130 as of January 1, 1953. However, Jensen also reported only 429 civilian psychologists in the Department of Defense; Table 1 indicates that some 710 APA members are employed by that department in some capacity or another. Data from the National Scientific Register (*Information Bull.*, No. 5, 1952) revealed that in 1951 it was estimated that 25.6% of the APA membership were employed by governmental agencies; Table 1 indicates 22.3%. It is felt that, in general, these figures are fairly reliable, when sampling errors and differences in definition are considered.

LAWRENCE S. ROGERS
Veterans Administration Hospital
Denver, Colorado

Psychology in the News

"By" or "To" . . .

From far across the sea, in a magazine called *Dublin Opinion*, "the national humorous journal of Ireland," there comes a mistaken item which says the APA "has decided . . . that the happiest years of your life are between the ages of 20 and 30." But the Dubliner has decided the happiest years are between 4 and 6, when "you haven't heard yet about rates and taxes, and when you're tired, you fall asleep without aspirin."

All press releases reporting papers read at APA meetings state plainly that the research results are reported by an individual or a team at a meeting of APA. But time after time, the news reports state that the findings were reported *by* the APA, not *to* the APA. Social psychologists may have noticed this effect elsewhere. This change is most likely in stories written as abbreviations of other stories: for example, wire services, radio reports, or items, say, from Dublin. The item gets smaller and thinner and the alleged authority behind it gets wider as it travels through space—a process analogous to the "flattening" of physical objects traveling at high speed, according to the relativity theory.

"A" or "The" . . .

A *Psychiatric Glossary*, the subject of many hours and even years of discussion within the American Psychiatric Association, has been published by "the other APA." The project was really started in the pressroom at the 1952 psychiatric meeting when reporters asked for some help in transposing technical terms into popular language.

The glossary starts off with "Abreaction" and ends with "Word salad." About equidistant between these two, there appears "Psychology . . . a science dealing with the study of mental processes and behavior in man and animal." Whereas psychology is "a science," psychiatry's definition begins "the medical science [italics ours] which deals with the origin, diagnosis, prevention, and treatment of emotional illness and asocial behavior."

The book is designed to be useful to premedical and medical students and to students of psychology, nursing, and social work as well as to "writers, editors, lawyers, clergymen, health workers, and others." For professional diagnostic or statistical

purposes, it is not intended to replace in any way the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual for Mental Disorders*.

* * *

Psychoanalysis, Ltd. . . .

There has been favorable comment on the articles in *The Saturday Review*, March 16 and 23, on "The Limitations of Psychoanalysis."

Erich Fromm wrote the first, "Man Is Not a Thing"; his article undertook to answer the question, "To what extent is psychology possible?"

J. A. Gengerelli, professor of psychology at the University of California, wrote the second article, "Dogma or Discipline?" His main conclusion is:

Our knowledge of psychical processes and phenomena is not negligible in quantity nor trivial in quality, but it is far from having the finality, completeness, and authority which psychoanalytic theorists have attributed to it. Indeed, we can be quite certain that most of the theories we hold today in the areas of motivation, emotions, and personality will look very "corny" fifty years hence.

His very last word was: "A protracted and restful silence in the mass-communications networks regarding the mind and personality would do much toward tranquilizing the Age of Anxiety."

Psychiatrists Plan TV Series . . .

By way of further meeting the demand for public information, the American Psychiatric Association will collaborate with Paddy Chayefsky, author of the Academy Award winning film "Marty," in a television program series in 1957. The association will furnish Mr. Chayefsky with consultation on psychiatric concepts and practices and otherwise render professional review and advice in preparing the scripts. No specific arrangements for commercial or network sponsorship or actual scheduling have yet been made. When the series arrives, it will feature "human interest" themes about "some of the mechanisms underlying human behavior as the psychiatrist views them," according to an official announcement.

"Fear Strikes Out" . . .

Many psychologists are saying that the best treatment of a psychiatric theme ever done by the

commercial motion pictures is "Fear Strikes Out," produced by Paramount. This is based on the true story of the breakdown and recovery of the big league baseball player, Jim Piersall.

* * *

Health and/or . . .

The ultimate in magazine coverage of physical and psychological concerns almost arrived with the February *Cosmopolitan*. Its cover proclaimed its nature: "HEALTH AND HAPPINESS." The subtitle said: "Entire issue devoted to the well-being of you and your family."

The issue contained 9 articles on health and/or happiness. Of these, $5\frac{1}{2}$ were on the psyche and $3\frac{1}{2}$ on the soma—in our judgment. The issue also contained a mystery novel, five short stories, and a picture-article on Audrey Hepburn. Presumably Hepburn's photos and the mystery were also dedicated to the well-being of the family. But that made 7 articles promoting happiness through fantasy and escape, and 9 through "fact."

The March issue was devoted to *money*—how to spend, save, earn, think, and feel about money.

In Future Issues . . .

The series *Life* did on psychology is considered by some of its editors as the best thing of its kind the magazine has ever done. They have now assigned Ernest Havemann, the author, to a "similar"

project in another field. Havemann is still haunting our office, however, for *McCall's* has asked him to sum up (a) dreams and (b) memory. The last-named is topical because of the current quiz shows. One of his first calls was to Joyce Brothers, APA member and TV winner, for her memory of data on the sport of boxing.

Suez: All in the Psyche . . .

No true statement is so true that some man cannot exaggerate it—including this one. This came to mind in connection with an article in the *Sunday New York Times* of March 24. The author, Fereidoun Esfandiary, discusses the cultural and family backgrounds in the Middle East which lead to emotional tension, emotional disturbances, and thence to conflict and war. One thesis is that it is a great fallacy to think of emotional disturbances as coming only from the stress of urban, industrial existence. The more primitive and "backward" areas have their share. Mr. Esfandiary goes further, however:

It is chiefly because of the unchecked emotional illnesses among our people, heightened by harmful social pressures, that there is so much blood running in the streets of Asia and Africa today; that there are so many tyrannies rising and falling, so many revolutions and assassinations, mass executions and purges.

—M. AMRINE

Psychology in the States

Iowa Department of Mental Health. The Executive Council of the Iowa Psychological Association met in Des Moines on February 8, 1957. One of the major items for discussion was the proposed legislation which would establish a Department of Mental Health in the state. The bill provides for the establishment of: (a) a Department of Mental Health; (b) a Mental Health Advisory Committee; and (c) divisions concerned with state mental health institutes, schools for the mentally deficient, community mental health services, research in mental health, services for disturbed and retarded children, and mental health consultants. The Executive Council recommended passage of the legislation.

Voluntary Certification in Massachusetts. The Massachusetts Psychological Association has established a program of voluntary certification to be administered by an incorporated board known as the Massachusetts Board of Certification in Psychology, Inc. The project was approved by unanimous vote of the MPA last year. The board is now receiving applications. Requirements for certification include membership in the MPA, a doctoral degree, and one year of postdoctoral experience. Provided certain experience requirements are met, psychologists without the degree may apply and examinations may be waived until May 1959. Correspondence on the program should be addressed to the Secretary of the board: Isidor Scherer; P. O. Box 95; Florence, Massachusetts. Other members of the board are Thelma G. Alper, Chester C. Bennett (Chairman), Leonard C. Mead, and Robert A. Young.

Legislative Forum in New Jersey. The New Jersey Psychological Association was actively represented at the second Legislative Forum on health and welfare bills held at Trenton on March 19, 1957. The morning session consisted of a review of important health and welfare bills before the current session of the legislature. During the afternoon, sectional meetings were devoted to the problems of: (a) health and rehabilitation; (b) mental health and mental deficiency; (c) juvenile delinquency, correction, and penal affairs; (d) health

and welfare of workers. Purposes of the meeting were to bring together the principal agencies involved, press for appropriate research, and avoid duplication of effort.

New York State Psychological Association. The New York State Department of Education reports that applications for "certification as psychologist" in New York State are now available. They are being sent to all members of the NYSPA and to those members of the American Psychological Association who reside in New York State as well as to persons who have written the department for applications. The law requiring certification of all persons wishing to call themselves psychologists in New York State in order to render "services to individuals, corporations, or the public for remuneration" was enacted in April 1956. It goes into effect July 1, 1957. Until then, persons having either one year of graduate work in psychology plus eight years of professional experience or three years of graduate work in psychology plus five years of professional experience may be eligible for certification. After July 1, 1957, a doctorate in psychology plus two years of "satisfactory supervised experience in rendering psychological services" will be required in order to be eligible for certification. All persons wishing to apply for this certification can obtain information and application blanks by writing to: Bureau of Professional Examinations and Registrations; 23 South Pearl Street; Albany 7, New York.

The annual meeting of the NYSPA was held February 1-2 at Columbia University. Albert S. Thompson, President of NYSPA, delivered an address entitled "Homo Laborans—An Analysis of the Meaning of Work." In an invited address, Fillmore H. Sanford spoke on "Psychology and the Mental Health Movement."

The Committee on Clinical Psychology, chaired by Max Siegel, is investigating the conditions of employment of clinical psychologists in the state.

Six new members were appointed to the Advisory Council in Psychology to fill unexpired terms caused by the resignation of council members who were appointed in October 1956 to the State Board of Examiners of Psychologists. The new appointees

are: Gordon F. Derner, Raymond A. Katzell, Roger T. Lennon, Jule Nydes, Albert S. Thompson, and G. Richard Wendt.

Mental Hygiene Clinics in Suffolk County, New York. At its meeting on March 2, 1957, the Suffolk County Psychological Association supported a resolution calling for the establishment of more mental hygiene clinics throughout the county. The resolution was to be passed on to the Suffolk County Mental Health Board. In comparing costs to the county, state, and federal governments, it was found that, for every dollar spent on the prevention of psychological disorders, eight dollars were saved in the elimination of custodial and treatment costs for those with severe disorders.

Oregon Psychological Association. The OPA has recently published its second annual directory of persons certified under the OPA's certification act. This act, unanimously passed by the membership in May 1955, provides for three levels of certification: Psychological Examiner, which requires the MA and one year of qualifying experience; Psychologist, which requires the PhD and two years of experience; and the Independent Practice level, which requires Psychologist certification and three additional years of experience. The 1957 directory lists 43 Psychologists, 14 Psychological Examiners, and 23 Psychologists certified at the Independent Practice level. Applications are reviewed by a three-man Board of Examiners. The board members who prepared the recent directory were Chairman John Watkins, Portland VA Hospital; Secretary-Treasurer Norman Sundberg, University of Oregon; and David Sterne, Vancouver VA Hospital.

On January 12, 1957 at Reed College in Portland, the OPA held its annual winter meeting. Approximately 150 persons attended. The program included the following invited addresses: "Biochemical Investigations into Mental Illness: The Occurrence of Aromatic Metabolites in Schizophrenia," by Patrick McGreer, Department of Neurological Research, University of British Columbia; "The Integration of Hypnotic and Psychoanalytic Techniques," by John Watkins, Portland VA Hospital; "Recent Applications of Psychoanalysis to Research in Child Development," by Harold

Dickman, University of Oregon; "Implications of Psychoanalysis for Psychological Testing," by Gordon Higginson, University of Portland; and "On Being a Professional," by Herbert Bisno, Department of Sociology, University of Oregon. The program committee chairman was Marvin Greenbaum, University of Oregon Medical School. Local arrangements chairman was Leslie Squier, Reed College. Present officers of the OPA are: Leona Tyler, President; Richard Littman, President-elect; and Norman Sundberg, Secretary-treasurer.

Legislation in Pennsylvania. The Legislative Committee of the Pennsylvania Psychological Association met in Harrisburg to work on a proposed certification bill. The bill under consideration provides for two levels of certification, including a psychological technician level. The committee feels that the bill is ready for submission to the state legislature and is planning to seek approval from the American Psychiatric Association, the Pennsylvania Medical Association, and the necessary sponsors in the state legislature.

Action Oriented Texas Program. In place of the customary paper-reading sessions, the Texas Psychological Association is planning to devote a forthcoming program meeting to a number of workshops and technical conferences on significant problems. Where appropriate, the sponsorship of state or private agencies will be sought. Among the workshops being considered is one on preparation of the undergraduate student for graduate work in psychology and another on problems and developments in the use of high speed computers. Sponsorship by the Texas State Health Department may be sought for a conference on standards and needs in counseling and rehabilitation; industrial organizations may support a conference devoted to meeting industry's needs for psychologists.

—J. W. GUSTAD

* * *

State Convention Calendar

Florida Psychological Association: May 2-4, 1957; Miami Beach, Florida

For information write to:
R. W. Husband
Florida State University
Tallahassee, Florida

Psychological Notes and News

James C. DeVoss, of San Jose, California, died April 1956.

W. Ernst Kris, of New York, died February 27, 1957.

Applications for membership in The Society of Engineering Psychologists (APA Division 21) will continue to be received and processed. Those who did not meet the initial deadline of March 15, 1957, but who are elected to membership later, will not be eligible this year for election as division officers but will be eligible to vote and have all other membership privileges at the September 1957 meeting. For information on membership in Division 21, write to: Harry Older; Psychological Research Associates, Inc.; 507 Eighteenth Street, South; Arlington 2, Virginia.

M. Kershaw Walsh, of the University of South Carolina, represented the APA at the inauguration of Frank Richard Veal as President of Allen University on March 13, 1957.

John W. Gustad, of the University of Maryland, represented the APA at the national centennial celebration of the National Education Association in Washington on April 4, 1957.

Milton L. Rock, of Edward N. Hay & Associates, and Geraldine F. Seiler, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, represented the APA at the Sixty-First Annual Meeting of the American Academy of Political and Social Science in Philadelphia on April 5-6, 1957.

Ronald R. Greene, of Ohio Wesleyan University, represented the APA at the inauguration of Novice G. Fawcett as President of Ohio State University on April 29, 1957.

Robert R. Sears, of Stanford University, represented the APA at the academic convocation commemorating the centennial year of San Jose State College on May 2, 1957.

Due to relocation of the editorial office and to reorganization of the staff, the 1957 issues of *Psychological Abstracts* will be delayed. Members who elected to receive the journal will receive their copies as soon as they are published.

Publication Policy for Psychological Monographs. Beginning with the 1958 volume, *Psy-*

chological Monographs is to publish comprehensive experimental investigations and programmatic studies which do not lend themselves to adequate presentation as journal articles. There will, however, be no fixed minimum or maximum number of pages for a monograph. Major space in a monograph will be given to the author's original contributions. Introductory and bibliographic materials, as well as statistical tables and graphs, must be kept within reasonable bounds. Tables and graphs which deal with detail not essential to adequate presentation of the findings may be made available through the American Documentation Institute—for details of this procedure, see the *APA Publication Manual*.

A monograph in *Psychological Monographs* differs from a journal article in certain respects. Its form corresponds more closely to that of a book. Those who are preparing manuscripts for possible publication should consult the *APA Publication Manual* and also the article written by the former Editor, Herbert S. Conrad, "Preparation of Manuscripts for Publication as Monographs," in the *Journal of Psychology*, 1948, 25, 447-459. All manuscripts should be sent directly to the new Editor, Norman L. Munn; Bowdoin College; Brunswick, Maine. The author should always retain a copy of his manuscript. In the case of doctoral dissertations, the Editor will accept for consideration a clear carbon copy.

Publication in *Psychological Monographs* is free of cost to the author, except in cases where early publication is requested or author's alterations are made in galley proofs. Information concerning costs may be obtained from the Managing Editor, Arthur C. Hoffman; American Psychological Association; 1333 Sixteenth Street, N.W.; Washington 6, D. C.

The following will be consulting editors of *Psychological Monographs*:

Anne Anastasi	Harold E. Jones
Frank A. Beach	Daniel Katz
W. J. Brogden	Boyd McCandless
John F. Dashiell	Donald W. MacKinnon
James J. Gibson	Quinn McNemar
D. O. Hebb	Henry W. Nissen
Edna Heidbreder	Lorrin A. Riggs
Francis W. Irwin	Carl R. Rogers
James J. Jenkins	Richard L. Solomon
	Ross Stagner

They have undertaken to aid in the soliciting of manuscripts and to give the Editor their advice on studies which otherwise appear suitable to him but which have aspects outside of his sphere of special competence.

NORMAN L. MUNN, Editor
Psychological Monographs

Dan L. Adler, of San Francisco State College, will leave in June for Canberra, Australia to do research on problems of migrant assimilation under a Fulbright award.

Walter W. Argow, for the past five years state director of the Wisconsin Association for Mental Health, will become executive director of the newly organized Mental Health Foundation of Greater Los Angeles. The California foundation was established to receive grants and to raise funds to develop research, training, and community service projects in the mental health field. It is affiliated with the National Association for Mental Health.

Ernest S. Barratt, formerly of the University of Delaware, has accepted a position as Professor of Psychology at Texas Christian University, Fort Worth, Texas.

Walter V. Clarke Associates announce the appointments of John Bennett, Jr. and Harold R. Musiker to the position of Clinical Psychologist in their Providence, Rhode Island office.

Harold Borko, following tour of duty with the U. S. Army in Japan, has joined the RAND Corporation in Santa Monica, California.

DWane R. Collins has been appointed Director of the Counseling Center and Associate Professor of Education at the Colorado College beginning in September 1957. He has been coordinator of an action research project for Pupil Personnel Services of the Snyder Public Schools in Snyder, Texas.

Eugene L. Gaier, of Louisiana State University, will spend next year in Finland as a Fulbright Lecturer in Social Psychology at the University of Helsinki.

Alberta Gilinsky has been appointed an Account Research Supervisor at the New York offices of Kenyon & Eckhardt, Inc.

Harold Guetzkow has been appointed Professor of Political Sciences and Psychology (jointly with Sociology) in the Graduate School at Northwestern University. He will participate in a behaviorally oriented program of graduate training and research in international relations which is being established by Northwestern under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation.

T. William Howard, formerly supervising clinical psychologist at Southeast Louisiana Hospital, has been appointed Chief Clinical Psychologist at Central Louisiana State Hospital, Pineville, Louisiana.

The Human Resources Research Office announces the following personnel changes:

Howard H. McFann is the newly appointed Director of Research at the U. S. Army Armor Human Research Unit at Fort Knox, Kentucky.

He replaces T. R. Vallance who has moved to the HumRRO Central Office in Washington, D. C. as Deputy Director.

H. F. Bright and H. O. Holt, formerly HumRRO Deputy Directors, have taken new positions with General Electric and with American Telephone and Telegraph.

William P. Hurder has resigned as the Superintendent of the State Colony and Training School at Pineville, Louisiana to accept a position as Associate Director of Mental Health for the Southern Regional Education Board in Atlanta, Georgia. William Sloan, formerly Director of Psychological Services at the school, has been appointed Superintendent to replace Dr. Hurder.

The IBM Research Center at Poughkeepsie, New York has established a new group for study of the information processing abilities of man.

Paul M. Fitts is serving as advisor to the group during a three-month leave of absence from Ohio State University.

The permanent members of the group are Edmund T. Klemmer, formerly at the Operational Applications Laboratory, and Nancy S. Anderson and Gustave J. Rath, formerly at Ohio State University.

The University of North Carolina announces the appointment of Lyle V. Jones as Director of its Psychometric Laboratory and Associate Professor of Psychology, effective September 1957. Thelma Gwinn Thurstone, currently the Director of the Laboratory and Professor of Education, will continue the direction of some of the laboratory proj-

ects as well as serving as principal investigator in the School of Education for contract research on the education of mentally handicapped children under the auspices of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Willard A. Kerr has been appointed a member of the staff of the Personnel Laboratory of Chicago to direct research on problems in industrial concerns and also to work on the development and standardization of new psychological tests. He will continue as an Associate Professor of Psychology at Illinois Institute of Technology and as Research Director of the test publishing firm, Psychometric Affiliates.

Maurice H. Krout has accepted an appointment as professorial lecturer in psychology at Roosevelt University, Chicago.

William Kulick has been appointed Counselor-Instructor at the Institute for Psychological Services, Chicago.

The Mental Health Division of the District of Columbia Department of Public Health announces that:

Elizabeth L. Metcalf, formerly with the Community Services Division of the National Institute of Mental Health, has been appointed Chief Clinical Psychologist.

Melvin A. Gravitz, formerly Director of the Hillsborough County Guidance Center in Tampa, Florida, is Senior Clinical Psychologist (and not a staff member of the hospital on Leech Farm Road as incorrectly reported by the VA in the January issue).

Dorothy Van Alstyne, formerly Chief Clinical Psychologist, resigned to accept a position with the Sarasota-Manatee Guidance Center in Sarasota, Florida.

William G. Mollenkopf has become Associate Manager of the Personnel Administration Department of Procter & Gamble Company, in charge of personnel research. He was formerly a Research Associate at the Educational Testing Service, New Jersey.

Leonard A. Ostlund, Assistant Professor of Psychology at Kent State University, has been appointed Evaluation Director of the National Science Foundation's \$255,000 Supplementary Training Program for High School Science Teachers now in progress at the Oklahoma A & M College.

James S. Peters, a member of the faculty of Springfield College, has been appointed Chief of the Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation, State Department of Education, Connecticut.

Rohrer, Hibler & Replogle announce the appointment of **Allen S. Penman** and **Hugh Russell** to the staff of the Atlanta office and the establishment of an office in Minneapolis with **C. Wesley Cannom** as Partner in Charge.

The members of the clinical psychology staff of Saint Albans Psychiatric Hospital and of its affiliated clinics are now:

Thomas C. Camp and **Artie L. Sturgeon** at the hospital in Radford, Virginia.

Lewis W. Field, Bluefield Mental Health Center, Bluefield, West Virginia.

H. Stuart Bacon, Psychiatric Services, Knoxville, Tennessee.

Richard B. Hartley, Beckley Mental Health Center, Beckley, West Virginia.

Herbert J. Maginley, Harlan Mental Health Center, Harlan, Kentucky.

The following personnel changes have occurred in the Clinical Psychology Division of the Department of Medicine and Surgery, Veterans Administration:

Martin J. Brennan has transferred from the Tuscaloosa VA Hospital to the position of Chief Clinical Psychologist, VA Hospital, Augusta, Georgia.

Earl C. Brown has transferred from the Wadsworth VA Center to the position of Chief Clinical Psychologist, VA Hospital, Tuscaloosa, Alabama.

John F. Byrne was listed erroneously in the January issue as being appointed Chief Clinical Psychologist, VA Center, Mountain Home, Tennessee.

John E. Drevdahl, recently on the staff of the Minneapolis VA Hospital, has been appointed Assistant Professor and Director of Clinical Training at the University of Arkansas.

Seymour Fisher has left the Houston VA Hospital and accepted appointment as Career Investigator with the Psychiatric Research Laboratories, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas.

Anthony R. Hybl, Chief Clinical Psychologist, has resigned from the staff of the VA Hospital, Shreveport, Louisiana.

Charles L. Kogan has been transferred from the Topeka VA Hospital to the clinical psychology staff of the VA Hospital, Montrose, New York.

Robert MacGregor has resigned his position with the Washington VA Hospital and has accepted the position of Research Director, Youth Development Project, Department of Neurology and Psychiatry, University of Texas

Medical Branch, Galveston, Texas. **Harold A. Goolishian** is Administrative Director of the project.

Richard C. Miller, a graduate of the VA Training Program, Catholic University, has been appointed to the clinical psychology staff of the VA Hospital, Leech Farm Road, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

Gordon W. Olson, a graduate of the VA Training Program, University of Iowa, has been appointed to the clinical psychology staff of the VA Hospital, Knoxville, Iowa.

Albert Rosen, recently on the staff of the Minneapolis VA Hospital, has been appointed Assistant Professor and Director of the Human Relations Center and **Ray W. Olson** has been appointed Assistant Professor and Clinical Psychologist in the Student Counseling Center at the State College of Washington.

J. Frank Whiting has transferred from the Rutland Heights VA Hospital to the position of Research Clinical Psychologist, VA Hospital, Leech Farm Road, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

Julian Wohl, a former graduate of the VA Training Program, has been appointed to the clinical psychology staff of the VA regional office in Detroit, Michigan.

The following personnel changes have occurred in the Vocational Counseling Division of the Department of Medicine and Surgery, Veterans Administration:

John L. Holland, formerly with the Perry Point VA Hospital, has been appointed Director of Research for the National Merit Scholarship Corporation, Evanston, Illinois.

Stanley D. Needelman has been granted leave of absence from the New York VA Hospital to accept a position with Mid-Nassau Community Guidance Center at Hicksville, New York.

William D. Pollan has transferred from the McKinney VA Hospital to the staff of the VA Hospital, Downey, Illinois.

The **Devereux Foundation** of Devon, Pennsylvania and the Pennsylvania State University announce a new, jointly sponsored program of Devereux Fellowships designed to provide training in child or school psychology. The program, to begin this coming June, leads to the PhD or EdD degree at the university. Applications for admission should be directed to: Admissions Committee, Department of Psychology; Pennsylvania State University; University Park, Pennsylvania.

The Psychology Department of the **Eastern Pennsylvania Psychiatric Institute** announces openings for postdoctoral fellows in clinical psychology and in clinical research. Clinical fellowships are available to graduates of clinical psychol-

ogy programs. Research fellowships are available for all graduates in psychology. Appointments are for two years, beginning July 1. Compensation the first year is \$5,803.00; the second year, \$6,090.00. Arrangements may be made for work in both children's and adults' units. For further information, write to: Thomas F. Johnson; Director, Psychological Training, Eastern Pennsylvania Psychiatric Institute; Henry Avenue and Abbottsford Road; Philadelphia 29, Pennsylvania.

Though there are a number of programs to further the training of scientists in some of the disciplines relevant to mental health research, the need for comprehensive research training in this field remains acute. In order to assist in the development of highly qualified investigators in the mental health field, the Board of Directors of the Foundations' Fund for Research in Psychiatry takes pleasure in announcing a program made possible by a grant from the Ford Foundation. The program supported by this grant consists of three parts: advanced fellowships, summer stipends for medical students, and funds for staff appointments. Advanced fellowships will be awarded to investigators committed to research careers in the sciences directly relevant to psychiatry and mental health. These will be made available for widely different sorts of research training. The research training may be of an advanced and specialized nature within the investigator's own scientific discipline; the training may cut across disciplines, thus enabling fellows to broaden the area of their research competence; or stipends may be made available in support of psychoanalytic training for research purposes. For further information, write to: Executive Officer, Foundations' Fund for Research in Psychiatry; 251 Edwards Street; New Haven 11, Connecticut.

Harvard University and the Daniel and Florence Guggenheim Foundation announce the establishment of the **Harvard-Guggenheim Center for Aviation Health and Safety**. The new center will study responses of the human body to extreme speeds, altitudes, temperatures, and toxic agents in flight and on the ground, and carry on basic research in the prevention and control of the increasing dangers of the air age. Two Daniel and Florence Guggenheim Fellowships of \$5,000 each will be awarded annually for graduate study at

the new center. Applications for these fellowships are currently being received and considered. For further information, write to: Ross A. McFarland; Technical Director, Harvard-Guggenheim Center for Aviation Health and Safety; Harvard University School of Public Health; Boston, Massachusetts.

The National Council of Jewish Women (1 West 47th Street; New York 36, New York) has established a fellowship program in honor of its founder, Hannah Greenebaum Solomon. The purpose of this program is to encourage advanced study in the fields of social welfare, education, and psychology with emphasis on community organization and research. Awards of \$2,500 each will be made to qualified individuals who are either currently engaged in research, planning to do original research, or who require assistance with the publication of findings resulting from advanced study. Applications must be received by May 1st for the fellowship award granted in October of the same year.

A two-year postdoctoral fellowship emphasizing training in child psychotherapy is available at the Philadelphia Child Guidance Clinic, beginning September 1957. The training includes supervision in psychological evaluation and clinical research. The requirements are U. S. citizenship (noncitizens who have taken out their first papers are also eligible) and a PhD in Clinical Psychology. The traineeship is available under the auspices of the USPHS and carries with it a tax-free stipend of \$3,400 the first year and \$4,000 the second year. Additional information may be obtained by writing to: Chief Psychologist, Philadelphia Child Guidance Clinic; 1700 Bainbridge Street; Philadelphia 46, Pennsylvania.

The Department of Psychiatry of the University of Wisconsin Medical School is accepting applications for a postdoctoral fellowship in clinical psychology which will be available on or before September 1957. Stipend for the one year appointment is \$4,800, \$3,600 of which is tax free. Candidates must have the PhD with major work in clinical psychology. Some clinical experience is essential. The training program emphasizes the development of psychotherapeutic skills with adequate opportunity for further experience with diagnostic problems. Inquiries may be addressed to:

W. F. Fey; Department of Psychiatry, University Hospitals; Madison 6, Wisconsin.

There is good reason to believe that a considerable amount of valuable experience has now accumulated relative to the organization, administration, utilization, development, methods, application, and special problems associated with the practice of clinical psychology. The different types of practical experience and problems which clinical psychologists have met and dealt with in clinics, hospitals, agencies, and a host of other settings constitute an important professional resource which could be shared by professional workers to the mutual advantage of all concerned. It is felt that there is a need for a publication devoted to communication about practical experiences, one that is not concerned primarily with traditional research. We are accordingly soliciting comment, expression of interest, suggestions as to scope of publication, and sharing of editorial tasks for a journal of clinical psychology practice. Please address inquiries to either of the cosponsors: John H. McCormack, Chief Psychologist; VA Hospital; Kansas City, Missouri, or M. Erik Wright, Director of Clinical Psychological Services; University of Kansas; Lawrence, Kansas.

The Psychology Department at the U. S. Air Force Academy is very much interested in receiving applications from inactive reserve officers, who are associated with a reserve training program, to spend two weeks with the department to assist in the planning of the psychology program at the Air Force Academy. Officers selected will spend their active duty time on a very specific project which will be designed to define illustrative material and methodology for teaching specific hours in the elementary course. It will be necessary for officers selected by this department to obtain approval from their reserve headquarters. Letters should be addressed to: Lt. Colonel Fred E. Holdrege; Department of Psychology, U. S. Air Force Academy; Denver, Colorado.

Psychologists and graduate students are invited to conduct research requiring a psychotic population at Beatty Memorial Hospital in Westville, Indiana. This is a state psychiatric hospital 60 miles from Chicago with 1,500 patients ranging in age

from about 12 years upwards. The hospital has no funds to support such research, but invites researchers who have secured private grants, as well as graduate students doing thesis projects. Address inquiries to: Director, Psychology Department; Norman M. Beatty Memorial Hospital; Westville, Indiana.

The University of Tasmania (Box 647c. G.P.O.; Hobart, Tasmania) is in need of out-of-print issues of the *Psychological Abstracts*: Vol. 1, No. 10-13; Vol. 10, No. 1-4, 6-7, 9-10, 13; Vol. 11-14; Vol. 15, No. 2, 4, 6, 10; Vol. 16, No. 1, 3, 5, 10, 13; Vol. 20, No. 3, 6, 10, 12. The university is prepared to accept complete volumes (bound or unbound) if it is not possible to obtain the individual issues required.

The Department of Psychology, Springfield State Hospital announces that the **Virginia Beyer Memorial Lecturer** for 1957 will be Melitta Schmideberg. The topic will be "Psychotherapy and the Therapeutic Management of Delinquents." The lecture will take place on May 24-25. For further information, write to: Michael H. P. Finn, Chief Psychologist; Springfield State Hospital; Sykesville, Maryland.

Robert A. McCleary, Assistant Professor of Psychology at the University of Michigan, has been awarded a Senior Postdoctoral Fellowship in Physiological Psychology. This fellowship, administered by the National Academy of Sciences-National Research Council, is supported by the Carnegie Corporation of New York. He will begin his fellowship in September 1957 at the University of Oslo, Norway under the sponsorship of Jan Jansen. He wishes to acquire special techniques in neurophysiology with which to supplement and extend his current experiments on brain function and behavior.

On March 8, 1957 at the Northwestern University Medical School, the Illinois Society for Personality Study sponsored lectures on the **effects of tranquilizers**: James G. Miller discussed the measurement of effects with behavioral tests; Howard F. Hunt described studies of tranquilizer effects on animals; Morris A. Lipton discussed effects on hospital patients.

In honor of the late Lewis M. Terman, a **Conference on the Gifted Child**, arranged by Robert R. Sears, was held at Stanford University on April 13.

A report was made on the present status of Terman's research on the gifted. Symposia on educational programs for gifted children and educational and psychological research were conducted.

The Graduate School and the College of Education of Ohio State University sponsored a guidance conference, "Frontiers of Guidance," on March 16, 1957. The lecture topics were: "The Compleat Counselor" (Nicholas Hobbs), Report from the U. S. Office of Education (Frank Wellman), and "Frontier R's" (Edward C. Roeber).

On February 8, the Sigmund Freud Society of Cleveland heard an address by Gardner Murphy on "The Legacy of Freud." On March 8, the second lecture in the spring series was presented by D. Levendula, "Hypnotherapy in Medicine."

On February 1-2, the first West Texas Conference for Visually Handicapped Children was held at Texas Technological College, Lubbock, Texas with Herbert Greenberg as coordinator. The conference was concerned with psychological and sociological problems of visually handicapped children and their families. From this conference was born the West Texas Council for Visually Handicapped Children.

The Bath Veterans Administration Center announces the **Fourth Annual Conference in Psychology**. For further information, write to: Bernard Berkowitz; Veterans Administration Center; Bath, New York.

Vocational training and rehabilitation of the mentally and physically handicapped will be the topics of the **1957 Spring Conference of The Woods Schools**. For further information, write to: The Woods Schools, Langhorne, Pennsylvania.

The Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests announces summer **Work Conferences in Reading**. For further information, write to: Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests; Kingscote Apt. 3G; 419 West 119 Street; New York 27, New York.

A remedial and developmental reading course will again be offered this summer by the Institute for Psychological Services. For further information, write to: Reading Service, Institute for Psychological Services; 3333 S. Federal Street; Chicago, Illinois.

San Francisco State College announces a new graduate program in **rehabilitation counseling**. For further information, write to: William M. Usdane; Director, Rehabilitation Counseling Pro-

gram; San Francisco State College; 1600 Holloway Avenue; San Francisco 27, California.

The School of Education at Fordham University announces that the topic of the **Third Annual Guidance Institute** will be Testing and Counseling in Schools. For further information, write to: William McAloon, Director of the Summer Session; Fordham University; New York 58, New York.

The Human Relations Training Laboratory at Southern Methodist University will hold its third annual two-week **laboratory session on leadership and group behavior**. For further information, write to: Alvin J. North; Director, Human Relations Training Laboratory; Silver City, New Mexico.

The **Sixth Western Training Laboratory in Group Development** will be held by the University of California Extension. For further information, write to: Department of Conferences and Special Activities; University Extension, University of California; Los Angeles 24, California.

The Applied Psychology Centre of McGill University announces a Seminar on **Recent Advances in Psychodiagnostic Theory and Practice**. For further information, write to: E. G. Poser; Applied Psychology Centre, McGill University; Montreal, Quebec.

The Department of Psychological Foundations and Services at Columbia University announces a **summer workshop on the vocational rehabilitation of the mentally retarded adolescent and adult**. For further information, write to: Abraham Jacobs; Box 35; Teachers College, Columbia University; New York 27, New York.

The Merrill-Palmer School announces **summer workshops in Family Life Education, Interpersonal Relations, Early Childhood Education, and Child Development**. For further information, write to: Merrill-Palmer School; 71 East Ferry Avenue; Detroit 2, Michigan.

Western Michigan University will offer a **summer workshop on Family Life Education**. For further information, write to: Mark Flapan; Department of Sociology, Western Michigan University; Kalamazoo, Michigan.

A regional research conference, sponsored by the **American Psychiatric Association**, the University of Oklahoma School of Medicine, and Oklahoma State Department of Health, was held on April 19-20, 1957 at the Oklahoma School of Medicine; 800 N.E. 13 Street; Oklahoma City 4, Oklahoma. The papers were principally on the psychophysiology of emotion.

The **American Society of Adlerian Psychology** and the **Individual Psychology Association of New York** will hold a joint meeting to commemorate the twentieth anniversary of the death of Alfred Adler. The meeting will be on May 10, 1957 at the New York Academy of Medicine, New York City.

The National Academy of Sciences-National Research Council's Division of Anthropology and Psychology announces that a two-day **International Symposium on Military Psychology** will be held in Brussels, Belgium at the Palais des Academies on July 26-27, 1957 immediately prior to the Fifteenth International Congress of Psychology. The symposium is being organized under the joint direction of the division's Committee on International Relations in Psychology (H. S. Langfeld, Chairman) and the Committee on Military Psychology (W. A. Hunt, Chairman). The program will consist of papers on military psychological research topics by representative psychologists from several Western European countries, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

The foundation is announced of the **Western European Association for Aviation Psychology**. The association was founded at Scheveningen, The Netherlands on October 31, 1956. The temporary steering committee consists of: J. B. Parry, Great Britain; S. D. Fokkema, The Netherlands; D. J. van Lenne, The Netherlands; and F. Miret y Alsina, Belgium. Eligible for membership are professionally qualified psychologists, employed by air forces and airways corporations or performing psychological research on behalf of aviation. The address of the Secretary of the association is: S. D. Fokkema, Vossiusstraat 56, Amsterdam-Z, The Netherlands.

Convention Calendar

American Psychological Association: August 30-September 5, 1957; New York, New York

For information write to:

Dr. Roger W. Russell
American Psychological Association
1333 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
Washington 6, D. C.

Canadian Psychological Association: June 6-8, 1957; Toronto, Ontario, Canada

For information write to:

Dr. D. C. Williams
Department of Psychology
University of Toronto
Toronto, Ontario, Canada

Midwestern Psychological Association: May 2-4, 1957; Chicago, Illinois

For information write to:

Donald W. Fiske, Secretary-Treasurer
Midwestern Psychological Association
5728 Ellis Avenue
Chicago 37, Illinois

American Neurological Association: June 18-19, 1957; Atlantic City, New Jersey

For information write to:

Charles Rupp, Secretary-Treasurer
133 South 36 Street
Philadelphia 4, Pennsylvania

Western Psychological Association: May 9-11, 1957; Eugene, Oregon

For information write to:

Richard Littman
Department of Psychology
University of Oregon
Eugene, Oregon

Fifteenth International Congress of Psychology, International Union of Scientific Psychology: July 28-August 3, 1957; Brussels, Belgium

For information write to:

Dr. Louis Delys, Secretary-General
296, Avenue des Sept Bonniers
Brussels, Belgium

American Society of Adlerian Psychology: May 10-12, 1957; New York, New York

For information write to:

Irvin Neufeld
103 East 86 Street
New York 28, New York

World Federation for Mental Health: August 11-17, 1957; Copenhagen, Denmark

For information write to:

Secretary-General
World Federation for Mental Health
19 Manchester Street
London W. 1, England

American Psychiatric Association: May 13-17, 1957; Chicago, Illinois

For information write to:

Austin M. Davies, Executive Assistant
Room 310, 1270 Avenue of the Americas
New York 20, New York

American Institute of Biological Sciences: August 25-29, 1957; Stanford, California

For information write to:

National Academy of Sciences
2101 Constitution Avenue, N.W.
Washington 25, D. C.

American Association on Mental Deficiency: May 21-25, 1957; Hartford, Connecticut

For information write to:

John P. Cassell
Mansfield Training School
Mansfield Depot, Connecticut

American Sociological Society: August 27-29, 1957; Washington, D. C.

For information write to:

Matilda White Riley, Executive Officer
American Sociological Society
New York University, Washington Square
New York 3, New York

A calendar of international conventions was given in the January 1957 issue
of the *American Psychologist*

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EDITED BY: G. M. Gilbert.

CONTRIBUTORS: Doris T. Allen; Harold and Gladys Anderson; Guillermo Davila, et al; J. Manuel Espinosa; Wayne H. Holtzman; Otto Klineberg; Carmen Cook de Leonard; Talcott Parsons and Muzafer Sherif.

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